

# FUNDAMENTAL AND ADULT EDUCATION

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## EDITORIAL

With our issue of October 1952 we included a questionnaire addressed to our readers. The response to this has been excellent, some completed questionnaires having been returned at the time of going to press, and they continue to come in at the rate of three or four a day. There is naturally a considerable delay in return as our readers are scattered all over the globe, and a few received their copies quite late.

All replies have been examined very carefully, but it has been impossible to answer each questionnaire separately. Many valuable suggestions have been made, which we shall aim to introduce into the bulletin as and when it becomes possible. Certain of them are, unfortunately, unrealizable—a bigger magazine, more and bigger illustrations, greater frequency of issue. It is very heartening to the editors to discover the very real need that the bulletin appears to fill and above all to see repeatedly the phrases 'helps me in my planning' or 'assists me in my work'. For it is, of course, the wish of Unesco that the ideas and programmes here presented should be translated into action elsewhere.

The criticisms, themselves, are, in a sense, a testament to the fact that the bulletin is of value to its readers, generally taking the form of a plea for 'more articles on—'; here follows a list which is almost as long as the list of readers' replies.

This, in fact, brings us to face our greatest editorial problem: the range of interests of our readers—literacy campaigns, rural development and all it implies—health, co-operatives, libraries, museums, arts and crafts, cottage industries, textbook production, current affairs, to mention only a few. We must find interests which meet the needs of all areas of the world; we must find material which fits into the traditional adult education techniques and the newer concepts of community development. Our readership having been built up for four years on the interests of fundamental educators, we can only slowly introduce material on strictly adult education as readership in this field is found. In any case, it is obvious that all interests cannot be served all the time. We can only hope to meet a number of them each time.

It would be misleading at this point to give any statistics on the replies to hand so far as they would be well out-of-date by the time this appears. It seems, however, that there is a clear preference for articles on individual projects and experiences describing in a practical way what solutions have been found, rather than posing the problem in its organizational and administrative aspects. There is a parallel desire to hear about failures, too, if useful lessons can be learnt from them, and general approval of the Open Forum section where fundamental principles of action with adults can be critically examined.

At a later date we will give a more precise analysis of these replies, but may we in the meantime thank all those who took the trouble to reply and remind others that it is still not too late to complete and forward their questionnaire.



*'... I visited the barrio to talk with the families before the meeting...'*



19.10.51. I visited the barrio to talk with the families before the meeting of the twenty-first.

21.10.51. We met again to discuss the milk station. Some neighbours who live near the school thought that the place that would benefit the whole barrio would be on the other side of the river because even though many would have to make some sacrifice, a greater number of children would thus receive the benefit. We decided to meet again on the twenty-eighth to come to an agreement when most of the affected would be present. Each one said he would personally invite a neighbour.

28.10.51. We again met in the place agreed upon by the persons interested. They kept their promise to each bring another person and there were not less than 35 neighbours present. The proper place for the milk station was the first topic. Since there were present persons from all sectors we could discuss extensively until we came to an agreement.

They said the land where they wanted the milk station to be built was owned by Don Modesto Avilés. At that moment Don Modesto arrived at the meeting and they themselves told him why they were assembled and the resolutions made. When he was told they wanted the milk station on part of his land; he said that not only would he give the piece of his land but also any other co-operation he could.

After arriving at this point, we decided to learn what the community was ready to give. After a time it grew somewhat late and many had work to do at their homes. We decided to meet again on 11 November at 1 p.m. at the site of the milk station. This meeting was carried on as though we were a whole family. All were very happy. We left with the purpose of interesting others in our project.

11.11.51. We met in the place agreed upon in the former meeting but there were not as many as at the last meeting. There were two reasons: one was the death of a child and its funeral at 2.30 p.m., and the other was a matter of religion. That day most of the neighbours had gone on a pilgrimage to six towns.

In spite of this, however, 14 persons carried on the meeting. We discussed the cost of the work and what the barrio was ready to do. Among other things, the neighbours agreed to pay a visit to the mayor and the superintendent of schools to inform them of their plans.



12.11.51. I visited the mayor and he agreed to see a commission from the barrio on 17 November.

14.11.51. On this day the film 'Los Peloteros' was screened in Cuyón. At 6 o'clock in the afternoon before beginning the screening of the film, I talked with many parents interested in the milk station and told them of the appointment with the mayor. About 400 persons attended the screening of the film. They had music and also a programme of their own. During the projection some neighbours could be heard commenting in this manner: 'That meeting at the beginning of the film looks like the ones we hold.' At the end of the projection a man, a carpenter by occupation, asked me for the microphone and spoke to his neighbours in this way: 'If those boys in the film succeeded, we can succeed also.'

28.12.51. On 28 December a commission from the barrio visited the mayor. He said he would help the barrio by giving some wood for the building. We returned to the barrio and planned a meeting. On this same day I talked with the supervisor of school lunchrooms, and agreed to help her to make a census of the children who would be covered by the age prescribed by the regulations.

8.1.52. I visited the barrio to talk with the neighbours. The teachers agreed to let the community use one of the rooms of the school for the meeting. We also agreed to screen again the film 'Los Peloteros' for those people who did not have the opportunity to see it at the regular showing.

13.1.52. The neighbours met with the purpose of first, hearing from the commission named by them for the interview with the mayor; second, to appoint a treasurer; and third, to plan the collection of funds. The barrio is in a very poor economic condition but they unanimously said they would give everything they could to see their dream come true. At the end of the meeting we set 27 January 1952, that is 15 days later, to meet again. Everybody present said they would bring another one for the next time. The number of adults present in this meeting of the thirteenth was 43.

22.1.52. A commission from the barrio visited the office of the superintendent of schools.

27.1.52. At this meeting the neighbours learned of the contribution of wood and cement promised from the mayor and superintendent. They estimated that in addition they would need 30 bags of cement, six rolls of roof paper, several hundred nails, eight gallons of paint and a number of steel rods. A neighbour said, 'I think we should name a commission to ask for help all over the barrio because we all know this is for the welfare of us all.' Everybody agreed and a commission was appointed. It was also agreed to ask the children to work in activities like the selling of candy made by the mothers of the barrio.

16.2.52. This commission could not go out to collect funds due to sickness problems of the persons who composed it. A new date, 1 March, was set for carrying out this activity.

1.3.52. The persons composing the commission were still sick. All agreed it would be postponed till 15 March.

9.3.52. I visited Barrio Cuyón to fasten posters and meet the committee for the distribution of the book, 'Science versus Superstition'.

11.3.52. I again visited the barrio with the supervisor of lunchrooms, this time to help the neighbours make the census of the children so that the community could justify the need of a milk station.

13.3.52. The Film 'Pueblito de Santiago' was screened in Cuyón with an attendance of approximately 350 persons. There was much interest among those present. The programme began with music, and later we talked about the books. There was evidence that the book had been read. I spoke on the microphone of the project of the milk station in case there was someone present who did not know about it.

15.3.52. I visited Cuyón with the purpose of meeting the commission that would visit the barrio for its contribution. We visited 29 houses, about one-tenth of the barrio.





*'... the barrio is in a very poor economic condition but they unanimously said they would give everything they could to see their dreams come true ...'*

All persons who contributed did so consciously and felt that what they gave was very little. They offered themselves and their animals for the work. (There follows a list of 28 persons who contributed, making a total of \$20.30). That day we set the date to continue the activity on 29 March. We also agreed on a community meeting for 20 April at which time the community would raffle off a pig which had been donated.

29.3.52. Members of the committee visited 36 families of the sectors Ceiba and Pueblito. (The contributions, ranging from 15cents to \$2.00, totalled \$13.00. Thirteen of the families were able to pledge only a certain number of days of work.)

20.4.52. The neighbours met for the purpose of informing the barrio, of hearing the report of the treasurer, and to start collecting the promised materials. After a long planning meeting they said they wanted to see 'Pueblito de Santiago' again. Following the movie we raffled off the pig, the winner being Don Pedro Rivera. All were very happy for his luck. The group organizer closed the day by reminding the community that we would have to meet many more times to reach conclusions, since the ideas of everybody are necessary for a matter which concerns everybody.

30.4.52. On this day a committee waited all day for the promised wood but it did not come.

10.5.52. I visited the barrio and took advantage of the opportunity to interest several neighbours of the northern part of the barrio who were not happy about the selection of the site. Several neighbours informed me that part of the wood had arrived and that they had put it away.

27.5.52. I visited the superintendent of schools concerning the cement which his office had offered. I also visited the office of the local supervisor of the milk stations. She told me the admission blanks had been returned to her because she had only written one last name of each child when she should have written both. Also the parents should have signed the papers.

5.6.52. I visited the barrio to talk with the neighbours about the next meeting. I spoke to many families in different sectors of the barrio and they made themselves responsible for inviting the rest of the barrio for 15 June at 1 p.m., at the site of the milk station. On my way out to the road I heard Don Manolo Dávila talking to a group of more than 10 persons about the work.



15.6.52. At the meeting on 15 June we discussed the need to present our plans to the planning board in San Juan.

*The Report comments:* Thus for more than a year the people of Cuyón talked and worked together, individually and in groups, seeking a solution to a problem common to all. It was three months after the group organizer had first visited the barrio that he recorded in his diary-like record, 'It was the beginning'. On that day Don Manolo Dávila had said, 'Once you told us that maybe we could with our own efforts help to solve this problem.' Through many disappointments but with even greater accomplishments, through sickness and poverty, often delayed by rain and mud, the community finally reached the place where today—at the moment of this writing, 15 September 1952—the community is building its own milk station.



*'... the community finally reached the place where today... is building its own milk station.'*



# SOCIAL ACTION AND FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION IN FRENCH EQUATORIAL AFRICA

J. C. PAUVERT

The present evolution of the African peoples raises many problems. Economic, political, social demographic and religious crises arise simultaneously in the urban centres and in the industrialized regions, where a 'detrilledized' proletariat is springing up, and in the rural areas, which are being abandoned by the most active elements of the population.

This is what is happening in French Equatorial Africa, for instance: in the Middle Congo, out of 600,000 inhabitants, 100,000 live in Brazzaville alone; and 500,000 are scattered over an area of approximately 340,000 sq. kms. This gives rise to unemployment, malnutrition and a fall in the birth-rate in the towns; to the breaking up of families and of the villages, and to the depopulation of the rest of the territory. Thus, in addition to the social problems due to the transplantation of the Africans to an environment unfamiliar to them, there is also the problem of the evolution and adaptation of the rural populations, whether the latter are completely scattered throughout a region where living conditions are very difficult, as in the Middle Congo or the Gabon (where the density of the population is 1.5 inhabitant per sq. km.), or whether they are concentrated in regions where there is a scarcity of arable land, as in the Logone region in the Chad Territory. These two factors also give rise to political problems.

This led the Governor-General, Eboué, to write in 1941: 'the whole policy that we have outlined<sup>1</sup> presupposes that the natives will become rooted to the soil, and develop within the framework of the traditional collective institutions; agricultural work is the most appropriate, if not the only appropriate, method of ensuring local progress and the social enrichment of the village and the tribe'. In 1944, the Brazzaville conference recognized that the education of the masses was indispensable if the bush populations were to improve their living conditions. The need to undertake large-scale social activities on behalf of the rural areas in French Equatorial Africa later revealed itself in a number of different ways, and we shall briefly discuss some of the problems that have been tackled and the solutions that have been proposed; they all indicate that in French Equatorial Africa, as in many other African territories, the education of the masses within the framework of the village and the traditional community is essential.

*Administrative and Medical Activities for Counteracting the Fall in the Birth-rate and the Demographic Crisis.* Provision for such activities in the Gabon was made in July 1944, in a memorandum of the 'Direction des Affaires Politiques'. This memorandum set out the methods to be used for modernizing the villages and prescribed the improvement of housing and food, the improvement of the village sanitary conditions, and the institution of family allowances. It was a veritable 'social plan', but unfortunately it was never carried into effect.

*Measures Against the Abandonment of the Rural Areas* and the migrations which seriously affect the structure of certain ethnic groups (in a district in the Chad Territory, out of 45,000 able-bodied men, 4,300—i.e. almost 10 per cent—have migrated to the towns). When there is no definite prohibition upon migration, the remedies proposed always include the grouping together of small bush villages so as to form larger centres and the establishment, in these centres, of schools, dispensaries, shops and markets, as all these

<sup>1</sup> Governor-General F. Eboué: *La Nouvelle Politique Indigène pour l'Afrique Équatoriale Française*, Rufisque, Imprimerie du Gouvernement général de l'A.O.F., 1948, p. 35.



can partly diminish the attraction exercised by the towns and check the disintegration of the traditional native community.

*Village Settlements.* The Department of Agriculture had prepared a plan for the establishment of villages with oil-palm plantations on a family co-operative basis, grouping together several families. Plantations of some three to thirteen hectares situated at an equal distance from two or three villages were thus established in the district of Sibiti in 1942 and in 1950, family plantations covered a total area of 350 hectares.

*The Modernization of Agriculture.* The decree of 26 September 1950 established in the oversea territories 'experimental regions for the modernization of agriculture with a view to the exploitation of the rural areas'. These areas were to be made more flourishing by intensifying the production of food for the towns (in the Middle Congo such areas were to include the Niari Valley, the Boko region and the Batéké plateaux).

*The Co-operatives and Native Provident Societies.* The latter (SIP) exist in all districts and their object is to help the native peasants to cultivate and sell their crops. With regard to the co-operatives, the experiments carried out in French Equatorial Africa have not given very satisfactory results.

The conclusion to be drawn from this brief recapitulation of certain solutions that have been proposed for the problems of the rural communities is that they are usually fragmentary and deal with only one aspect of the more general question of social action in the bush. No provision has been made for co-ordinating the various measures proposed with respect to agriculture, the improvement of housing and food, and the checking of migration from the rural areas. The establishment of family oil-palm plantations, for instance, in the district of Sibiti (Middle Congo) was not intended to be, and has not been, accompanied by any special efforts in the fields of education, hygiene and food; all the activities that have been undertaken are due to the initiative of services which are either unaware of each other's existence or desirous of working independently. When the establishment of a co-operative has been decided upon, its activities are considered solely from the strictly economic and commercial points of view, and are not related to a more general plan of action covering other aspects of community life.

Nevertheless, all these activities have one characteristic in common: they are all based on recognition of the need for acting, in rural areas, within the framework of the traditional social unit, namely the village. It was in this way that the project for rural cantonal centres, which forms part of the Ten-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, was evolved in 1948.

#### THE RURAL CANTONAL CENTRES

In July 1948 a circular of the French Ministry for Oversea Territories provided for the establishment of rural cantonal centres, whose objects were defined as follows: 'to aid the rural populations to live a more healthy, comfortable and productive—i.e. a more modern—kind of life'; to imbue them with a sense of their responsibilities and gradually to render them capable of assuming their own administration within the framework of the village or the commune; to put an end to haphazard migration from the rural areas to the already over-populated towns, a form of migration which can have very serious economic and social consequences'.

Moreover, it was expressly stated that the methods and techniques used were to be adapted to local conditions.

It was decided that each cantonal centre should have: a school unit and a dispensary, a water supply, a roofed-in market, an open-air meeting place with a covered hall,



a local club-room, a playing field, a shed for machines and a workshop, premises for co-operative uses, an office and lodgings for the cantonal secretary, an office and lodgings for visiting administrative officials, a residence for the head of the canton.

The Ministry also prescribed that apart from the sums expended under the plan for the necessary buildings, certain measures should be taken to enable those concerned to assume responsibility for the activities and extension of the centre: 'it is only by increasing the individual income of those who will benefit by the establishment of the centres that you will be able to guarantee the latter's future'.

It is obvious that a cantonal centre in French Equatorial Africa cannot be planned in the same way as in French West Africa or Madagascar, nor in the same way as a rural centre in Haiti or Nyasaland. It is none the less true that the principles outlined by the French Ministry for Oversea Territories resemble certain of the principles of fundamental education whose object has been defined by Unesco as follows: 'to permit individuals to live a better life by adapting themselves to their environment'; and that they fully correspond to the general aims of social activities undertaken on behalf of rural populations.

A particular aspect of the problem of rural cantonal centres speedily came to the fore in French Equatorial Africa in the shape of the question of regrouping the villages of the Gabon.

### *The Regrouping of the Villages in the Gabon*

In 1948, the Deputy for the Gabon presented a project for the regrouping of the villages in the Gabon, with a view to putting an end to the demographic crisis which existed in that territory and which, in his opinion, was due to the excessive scattering of the ethnic groups and the population in general. 'The High Commissioner and the federal and local administrative authorities felt at that time that no substantial or long-term action could be undertaken on behalf of this scattered and constantly fluctuating population, and that it was impossible to enable it to enjoy the benefits of civilization.' The High Commissioner accordingly decided that the directives of the Ministry concerning the establishment of rural cantonal centres would be applied in the Gabon in the form of a social experiment.

Before establishing these centres, it seemed necessary to make a detailed study of the local ethnological, psychological and sociological conditions in which such regrouping of the population could be effected; and this was the object of the research on the structure of the Gabon villages, more particularly in the regions of N'Gounié, Nyanga and Woleu-N'Tem, carried out by Messrs. Balandier and Pauvert.<sup>1</sup> Data were assembled on the traditional as well as the new system of economy, on the demography and on the political and family organization of the populations concerned. A conference was then held between the heads of the services which were to participate in the experiment—the Department of Education and Agriculture, the Health Service, the Department of Finance, the Office of the Plan, and the Woods and Forests Service; and the launching of the first centres was entrusted to a mission consisting of two sociologists, a doctor and an agronomist, working in liaison with the local administration.

Two kinds of centres were decided upon: 'centres of attraction' in N'Gounié and Nyanga, where the family organization and traditional cultivation methods of the Bapounou population would have been unduly interfered with by any real concentration of villages; and veritable centres for the regrouping of villages in Woleu-N'Tem, where the Fangs had definitely shown their desire for such regrouping and where the social and economic structure made it possible.

After the population had been consulted and the site most suitable from the sanitary

<sup>1</sup> G. Balandier and J. C. Pauvert: *Les Villages Gabonais*, "Mémoire No. 5" de l'Institut d'Études Centrafricaines (in the press).



and agricultural standpoint had been chosen, a town planning scheme was established in each of the centres. Under this plan, each centre was to be provided with a school, a dispensary, a town hall, a covered market, three dwellings for monitors, and a well. The villagers would build their houses themselves, in the traditional style and with the help of a brick press placed at their disposal.

#### RULES OF SOCIAL ACTION AND THE ROLE OF THE VARIOUS SERVICES

These first experiments carried out in the Gabon, and the ethnological studies that preceded them, have made it possible to establish certain practical rules which, with the necessary adaptation, can be applied in other parts of French Equatorial Africa for the building of rural cantonal centres.

##### *Need for an Economic Basis*

The economic situation of the population which is to benefit by a rural social experiment must be sound or put on a sound basis. The centres for the regrouping of villages in the Gabon were selected in regions that were susceptible of agricultural development, either because of the cultivation of cocoa (in Woleu-N'Tem), permitting resources to be increased and social progress, therefore, to be achieved, or because of the introduction of new kinds of crops, such as rice in the Nyanga region. The officers of the agricultural service thus play a fundamental role in every rural social experiment, either in rationalizing the growing of food crops, which are indispensable for increasing the food resources, or in promoting the cultivation of crops for export, in order to increase the revenue.

##### *Need for Medical and Sanitary Action*

This type of action should always accompany efforts to modernize rural areas or to establish settlement villages, although no provision was made for it in the projects drawn up by the Department of Agriculture alone. In the areas where the administrative authorities intend to develop the cultivation of food crops (Niari Valley, Boko region), genuine rural centres should be established; this would permit infant mortality to be checked by medical action, hygiene and public health to be supervised, etc.

##### *Need for the Improvement of Housing*

A public works foreman must be placed at the disposal of the head of the district responsible for the building of a centre, in order to guide the villagers in the construction of their homes. It would perhaps be inadvisable to provide a pattern for these houses; but control must be exercised over the building technique used, the manner in which the village is laid out, the methods of drainage, the supply of drinking water, and the construction of the brick-kiln and the lime-kiln.

##### *Need for a Communal Political Organization*

One of the problems arising in the new rural cantonal centres is that of chiefship. Village councils must be established. These, consisting of the former heads of the villages that have been regrouped, other notabilities and enlightened trading people, must be made responsible for the progress of the new centres; this will enable the villagers to make an experiment in communal political organization without detriment to the traditional system of chiefship. The rural masses must gradually come to realize their own capabilities.



General responsibility for any experiment in the way of a rural cantonal centre must naturally rest with the head of the district. He, however, must be accurately informed of principles and requirements as regards a type of social action which, to some extent, breaks away from administrative routine; he must also know what is the doctrine accepted by the federal administration in the matter of adult education. Here, it is the Social Affairs Service that plays the predominant role; and it is quite natural that we should now devote our attention to it.

*Need for an Extended Form of Social and Educational Action; Role of the Social Affairs Service and the Educational Service*

As we have already said, the social activities hitherto undertaken in French Equatorial Africa have been due to the initiative of services which were either unaware of each other's existence or desirous of acting independently; for instance, the establishment of oil-palm co-operatives, or family plantations by the Department of Agriculture, was not accompanied by similar efforts in the fields of education and hygiene. The Social Affairs Service which then existed in French Equatorial Africa did not participate in these activities, but took the initiative in another field, e.g. by circulating educational films among populations which had not had the benefit of any agricultural or medical education. The film is the most complicated and delicate of educational aids; it remains, however, no more than an aid.

The directives of the French Ministry for Oversea Territories concerning the rural cantonal centres were the first to emphasize the need for acting in all fields (economic, medical and educational) simultaneously; and the establishment of the first centres in the Gabon made this possible. Without describing in detail the theory of social activity that we have advocated for French Equatorial Africa, we can sum up its practical conclusions.

Fundamental education activities must be undertaken in the Gabon centres; these activities have already been prepared; the necessary ethnological and sociological research has already been carried out, the localities suitable for the experiment carefully chosen, the budgets drawn up, and the initial construction started. The present task is to help the villagers to develop their community, to organize their new social life, to adapt their system of chiefship and to increase their output. In order to transform the cantonal centres and make them into centres for experimentation in fundamental education in French Equatorial Africa, it is also essential:

1. To prepare necessary audio-visual aids, taking into account local conditions and certain tendencies at present displayed by the ethnic groups concerned (Fang and Bapounou), in the economic, political and religious fields. The language problem will have to be resolved; here, the tendency to assimilation must be abandoned and, at any rate, to start with, the vernacular languages must be used, if only as a preparation for the study of French.
2. To train specialized staff. The monitors attached to the cantonal centres by the Services of Agriculture, Education and Health must be made familiar, by a course organized for that purpose, with the very special conditions in which they will have to work and with the importance of the role they will have to play. Under the direction of the educator responsible for the experiment as a whole, these monitors must: (a) conduct a campaign for the eradication of illiteracy; (b) stimulate the development of the various technical activities, as regards both the building of the village and the rehabilitation of the traditional crafts; (c) induce the women to participate in the experiment; this is vital to the latter's success (to educate a woman is to educate a family); (d) promote adult education: information meetings, discussion of local problems, training in agriculture, hygiene, etc.



The important point, as regards fundamental education, is to harness the dynamic qualities of the group concerned, to adapt oneself to its functional unity, and to act in all fields (economics, politics, public health, and education proper) simultaneously. In the African territories under French administration it is essential to carry out fundamental education experiments which, without disorganizing the existing system, will make it possible to find solutions for the human problems which arise in French Equatorial Africa as in all other regions of Negro Africa.

The rural cantonal centres in the Gabon, the Chad Territory, Ubangui and the Middle Congo are ideal settings for such experiments; and we may quote, in conclusion, the final words of the Fundamental Education Programme for French West Africa: 'It seems wise, at the beginning, to avoid spectacular and unco-ordinated activities and to engage in small-scale experiments designed to reveal effective methods for adult education.'

## THE FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING IN UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES

A. J. HALLS

During the past 20 years or so broadcasting has changed; from a medium devoted to entertainment it has become a highly capable organization devoting more and more of its time to some form of education. That broadcasting is an efficient medium of mass instruction has by now become an established fact. It is used not only for such relatively pure educational purposes as the supplementing of instruction in the schools but, by directing much of its programme material into an educational channel, it attempts to raise public education to a new and higher level, or to give it a new orientation.

It is strange, therefore, that with such a cumulative weight of evidence as to its value, apart from such experiments as the ones described below, only desultory efforts have so far been made to use the medium at its full potential, for raising the general educational level in countries which, owing to economic and social conditions, are unable to provide the usual educational facilities, except perhaps to a small percentage of their people.

Much experimentation has been made in the field of fundamental education and much has been achieved, but in all these efforts the use of broadcasting in its wider implications has been neglected. There are no doubt very good reasons for this, the most probable being the high initial cost of equipment and the fact that, while filmstrips, for instance, can be made and utilized by a small staff for a small area, broadcasting, by its very nature, demands a larger audience to make it economically effective. I am convinced, however, that this is not necessarily true, and that with sufficient initial planning, if broadcasting were utilized to the full, the cost per head to the persons participating in such a programme would be found to be lower than that of any other mechanical aid used in the development of fundamental education.

In most countries where fundamental education is needed, two areas of the work can be covered by broadcasting: work with the schools and the education of adolescents and adults. Both present distinct problems and need special techniques.

Possibly the best method of pointing these problems and examining the possible



methods to be used, is to consider a case of a small country or State which has asked for assistance in these matters. While the conditions outlined here will be to some extent hypothetical, they are based on actual conditions observed in two countries of which the author has experience.

In such a community there will almost inevitably be some form of scholastic education which, if towns of any size exist, will function more or less effectively in and about them and will become less and less effective as the distance from the educational centre becomes greater. These outlying schools will be of the village type with, at the best, semi-trained teachers and, at the worst, teachers who can barely read and write the vernacular.

In the towns there will be found a varying degree of literacy but the great mass of the people outside the towns will be for the most part illiterate. In the towns also there will be persons who have some knowledge of the social organization of the country as a whole and a smaller number who will have a wider knowledge embracing the relationships of the State to other States. The people however will have an intimate knowledge of their own village affairs though little awareness of the relationship of the village to the country as a whole, and practically no knowledge of the world outside the country.

Obviously, therefore, broadcasting under such conditions presents a twofold problem: of helping the development of the scholastic system and reaching the people with educative material. This division is of course not absolute and points of contact will be found at many stages.

In considering the needs of the schools it would seem that the following are the fields in which help is required and in which broadcasting can play its part:

1. By providing specific instruction in basic scholastic subjects.
2. By providing model lessons or a supplement to the training already received by the teacher.
3. By providing a wider range of subject material for the pupil.
4. By providing instruction in subjects which are outside the scope of the curriculum as laid down.

Those who are familiar with the usual attitude to schools broadcasting in advanced countries, will notice that numbers 1 and 2 are contrary to normal practice. Those connected with schools broadcasting have usually questioned the effectiveness of broadcasting as a medium for teaching basic subjects such as reading, writing, arithmetic, etc., and it has been the policy not to present scholastic material in the form of 'model' lessons. However, in the situation envisaged, the teaching in the schools is carried on by teachers who have had little or no training and for whom there is no prospect of teacher training of any kind in the near future. Under such conditions drastic measures are called for which cannot be based on previous practice.

To provide instruction in the basic subjects by broadcasting, however, demands the aid of other media. It is inconceivable that, for instance, writing could be taught by broadcasting without the aid of visual material. Co-operation must, therefore, be established between the broadcasting body and some organization which can devise and supply such material. This is on the whole true of all subjects which we might include under the term 'basic'. Complete visual co-operation must be established.

While it is not possible to provide actual model lessons for classroom use, it is possible to give instruction in the logical development of subject matter. Most semi-trained teachers disperse their efforts into unproductive channels and they are often unable to develop a subject so as to leave the main points clear in the mind of the student. By listening to broadcasts written by expert teachers such teachers will be encouraged to adopt a treatment more in conformity with the best teaching practice.

That broadcasts can undoubtedly supply a wider range of subject material than it is possible for the village teachers to supply needs little stressing as it is the basic reason for schools broadcasting in any country. This is all the more true of the hypothetical country which we are here considering, where the range of subject matter forming



the basic mental horizon of the people is taken to be narrow, the scope of broadcasting in extending that range will consequently be the wider.

We are of course on traditional ground in stating further that instruction may be provided in subjects outside the established curriculum. Where the bulk of the teachers are semi-trained, the curriculum must be framed accordingly. This will mean that subjects not included among the basic requirements will be neglected by the semi-trained teacher, because of his lack of training and general knowledge. Here broadcasting can enter a field in which it is unchallenged; here it begins to perform its usual function as a medium of mass education.

#### FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

In the education of the majority of the population of post-school age and of no scholastic education, much thought has been given to the teaching of literacy. Organizations for the teaching of literacy assume, in fact, that until a people are literate they must be deprived of that knowledge which alone can enable them to take their place both within their immediate environment and in the larger world. This concept is not, I feel, based on fact and may, in effect, be retarding the spread of knowledge. A visit to a village in our hypothetical community will point the case.

In such a village an extensive knowledge of local affairs is usually widespread and local affairs are debated and administered with skill and efficiency. There is no lack of intelligence or of the desire to participate in the affairs of the community. What is lacking, however, is a knowledge of the wider communities of which this is only a part. To assume that only when literacy has been reached can such knowledge be gained, presupposes the standard of literacy to be such that relatively complicated arguments can be followed in the printed or written word. It is also to assume that suitable literature is available in the language in which the people have been made literate.

The first desiderata is one that can only be reached over a fairly long period of instruction, and the second presupposes an organization for the production and supply of literature. Both are difficult and costly to initiate and maintain.

There is, however, no need to wait for the development of literacy before attempting the improvement of the overall education of a people. Whatever vernacular is used is spoken throughout the area, and for broadcasts to the majority, this spoken vernacular is the obvious medium to use. It may be objected that local vernaculars are limited in vocabulary and are unsuitable for carrying the ideas which we may wish the people to acquire. While this may be so in a minority group among very primitive people, in the great majority of cases the vernacular can by adaption or adoption be made to serve this purpose.

Obviously broadcasting, which is a medium of mass instruction, can do its work before literacy has been developed, and fundamental education has here a means of reaching the people which can serve it whenever it is possible to provide the mechanical means for listening. Broadcasting can begin the work of expanding the range of interests of a people by the use of broadcasts in the vernacular, and eventually a larger organization can continue this work by the encouragement of literacy and the provision of suitable literature, thus providing a progressive programme of education in line with the needs of the people. In such a programme of fundamental education naturally certain restrictions will be imposed by the medium itself, by the initial mental background of the listeners and by language, but by experimentation and adaptation of existing methods such problems can be solved.

While the medium of broadcasting is flexible and can accomplish much in the way of direct instruction, it would be wise to restrict the material presented to those subjects which have some relevance to the environment of the listeners. This factor, considered in relation to the actual mental background in each case, will determine the stage at which

programmes can be commenced and the subject matter which should be broadcast.

For instance, in our hypothetical country, where the people are dependent upon agriculture or on the pasturing of flocks or herds, a basic programme must use as its point of departure material relevant to these occupations. As living conditions in the community are primitive, broadcasts aimed at improving these conditions, provided they are practical, will catch the ear of the listener. Once a focus of interest has been established and once the audience is convinced that what is offered is practicable within the traditional framework of their society, the field can be widened to embrace programmes concerned with the civic responsibility of the individual, the health of the community, and general information programmes on local and international news.

It is of the utmost importance that the listener be convinced by the nature of the programmes that they are given by an authority fully conversant with the life of the community, before any attempt is made to extend the range so as to widen the horizon of that community. For instance, broadcasts directed to improving the ventilation of houses in a country where it is normal to sleep and eat out of doors, will not inspire confidence in the minds of the recipients, and will make future programmes suspect.

Enough has been said to point out certain problems which, inherent in any attempt at fundamental education, are particularly important in broadcasting. They do not detract from the original thesis that broadcasting is a medium which can provide an atmosphere conducive to the development of concepts which are in advance of the traditional ideology of the community, and will, if used effectively, pave the way for the more arduous task of developing literacy and the means to education through literacy.

Fundamental education depends on finance, trained personnel and industrial development. When the technique of broadcasting has been investigated in relation to fundamental education it will be found to be an economic medium in regard to finance, personal requirement, and the literacy aids which only a developed country can normally supply.

#### BROADCASTING AND LITERACY

Even in the work of literacy, the effectiveness of broadcasting has seldom been tried. This is natural, as literacy is concerned with the printed rather than the spoken word. However, as most literacy campaigns depend on untrained teachers for the continuation of basic instruction in writing and reading, any medium which can reinforce the work of the teachers is of great value.

Let us return to our hypothetical community, and see how a literacy campaign might work. The literacy team responsible will be small, they will have prepared literacy material and will have evolved some means of instructing a group of the local people in reading and writing in the vernacular. They will also, if they have time, instruct in the elementary principles of teaching this material. The students so taught will then be sent out into the field to instruct, in their turn, others. The further such an effort extends from its base the weaker it becomes. There is neither stimulus nor is correction available to the teacher in the field.

While it is not claimed that broadcasting can eliminate the initial stages, it is felt that it can provide a most economic medium for the continued instruction of teachers and the extension of their work without the necessity of frequent recall to base.

We will assume that group leaders have been trained and despatched to their posts. They will take with them, along with their charts and other aids, a radio receiver. At pre-arranged times, charts and other materials are displayed, the students are assembled and the work proceeds as directed through the receiver from the base. Such a procedure, while open to the criticism of slowing down the rate of learning, has a twofold purpose. Not only does it reinforce by reiteration the teaching already given but the fact that the broadcast comes from base lends it added force. From the point of view of the



teacher, the broadcast helps to refresh his mind on points which he may have forgotten. This is more particularly so after a lapse of time and when the instruction has become more advanced and complex.

It is, however, more than ever important to stress the fact that in subjects such as these broadcasting cannot work alone; it is essential for each broadcast to be backed by visual material which is easily identifiable and familiar to both the student and the teacher. In other words, it must be ensured that visual material is in the hands of the teacher in advance of the broadcast, and by the very nature of the work, this is something that must be checked and rechecked.

Given the conditions as set out, I have no hesitation in saying that in broadcasting, literacy has one of its most important facilities and, with experimentation in the field and with a due regard for local conditions, a wider area can be covered by using this medium than by any other.

### *Provision and Maintenance of Equipment*

Depending on the location of the mission, it is advisable that the mission itself have at its disposal a transmitting unit. This may present problems of control where the country concerned already operates a broadcasting organization. The question of wave-length may arise, and other technical difficulties, but more particularly it may involve a conflict of authority. Such matters, however, while important as possible stumbling blocks, will differ according to the country and the nature and status of the mission.

The transmitter need not be a very high-powered one in the initial stages of a mission's work, and will almost certainly work on short waves. A technician capable of assembling and working such a transmitter in rather primitive conditions should be a member of the staff mission. Such a person would also be responsible for the supply and maintenance of receivers to the areas serviced.

Teachers or other workers who are to be sent into the field should be instructed in the day to day maintenance of receivers, although they should be discouraged from attempting themselves any adjustments or repairs to the sets.

At base a stock should be held equal to at least 50 per cent of the total number of the receivers in the field, and at the first sign of breakdown a replacement should be sent and the original brought back to base.

While the supply and maintenance position in a large underdeveloped area may be a major difficulty, in an experimental mission covering say 20 villages with reasonable access there should be very few difficulties.

### *Pedal Transmitters*

For some years in Australia, pedal wireless transmitter-receivers have been installed to allow residents of isolated farms to call the 'flying doctor'. This service has been recently extended to allow communication between pupils of the correspondence schools and their teachers at the centre of instruction. This scheme has been in operation only a short time and it is rather early to expect detailed results of the experiment.

In thinking of the part which broadcasting can play in fundamental education, however, it is worth while to speculate on the use which could be made of such facilities.

If we envisage our teachers and workers in the villages operating at a distance from base and over a terrain which may be difficult, it would seem that in the pedal wireless we have an instrument which could solve many of our difficulties. Not only would the individual teacher receive broadcasts which he could utilize as a basis for instruction and which would serve as an added stimulus to his pupils but he would be able, within a reasonable time, to transmit to base the reaction of his pupils to the broadcast, with criticism of subject matter, pace, vocabulary, etc. Further, as a check on the effectiveness of his teaching and of broadcasts, selected pupils could also be allowed to take part



in two-way conversation with base, in which an assessment of progress could be made. Finally, the teacher himself would have the facility of direct contact with base, to seek advice or to explain local conditions which demand a modification of attack.

It must be stressed, however, that this system of instruction is in its infancy in Australia. There may be difficulties so far unknown, which limit its application in the fundamental education field.

### *Organization*

In many under-developed countries there is a complex governmental system, and any attempts at fundamental education or literacy will need to receive support from one or other of the government departments.

Broadcasting is also a complex medium serving not only education and public entertainment but also, to use an unsavoury word, propaganda in some form or other. Seldom is broadcasting as such controlled by the educational authorities. It is therefore imperative that before the co-operation of broadcasting is enlisted in the development of fundamental education, it is ascertained that the organizations concerned can and will work together on such a project.

One of the first requisites is for a general committee to be formed on which sit, not only members of the organization concerned, but independent members appointed by the government who are able to regard certain matters from an objective standpoint.

As it is obviously important that any scheme of fundamental education should leave behind it an organization to carry on its work, a broadcasting department or organization should be built up, which will have equal status with any educational body which is brought into being. Practising educationalists should be responsible for the content of any broadcast, but it is just as imperative that the broadcasting organization should control not only the transmission but also the type of broadcast. The actual technique of broadcasting has become such a skilled operation that the organization should control both the transmission and the form of the broadcast.

### *Staff*

It is essential in broadcasting that executive personnel should have received training in the general technique of educational broadcasting. That is to say that they must know what changes must be made in material and production for children or for literate or semi-literate people. They should be versatile and able to operate the necessary radio



*A joint Radio Farm Forum discussion in progress. The discussion is presided over by Mr. M. P. Patil, Minister for Agriculture, Bombay State, India, centre.*

apparatus, understand the technique of production and acting, write scripts and above all be adaptable. The educational personnel also should be given opportunity to become familiar with the limitations and advantages of the medium, of the different teaching techniques required by broadcasting and must also be willing to adapt their teaching methods to new conditions.

The radio technicians need not be specialists but they should be conversant with the whole field of broadcasting, and should have had experience of radio transmission and reception under conditions not usually found in the large and complex radio installations in advanced countries.

## SUGGESTIONS AS TO THE ORGANIZATION OF A BROADCASTING UNIT IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

1. Exploratory mission to investigate terrain from a technical point of view.
2. Establishment of co-operation at governmental level between the organizations concerned.
3. Purchase of Equipment
  - (a) Transmitter, short wave. Type dependent on report of exploratory mission in consultation with local radio organization.
  - (b) Provision of receivers. Number dependent on the educational requirements. Type dependent on advice of exploratory mission.
  - (c) Auxiliary equipment, i.e. tape recorders, microphones, play-back equipment, etc., dependent on advice of exploratory mission.
4. Staff
  - (a) A chief or director of the broadcasting team. He should be responsible for the presentation and production of all material broadcast, and should be consulted as to the form of the material used. Within limits he should be responsible for the actual transmissions, time, duration, etc., and should also be responsible for the distribution and maintenance of receivers.
  - (b) Assistant broadcast officer, responsible for the technique of presentation and production of all programmes.
  - (c) Script writer. As all programmes will be in the vernacular it is unlikely that a local script writer will be found either with the educational background or the literacy ability. The usual method is therefore to prepare basic scripts which can be adapted to the local conditions, so that the vernacular writers can eventually produce their own scripts. The script-writer's job would be to take the material supplied by educational specialists and, in consultation with them, produce a basic script, suitable for broadcasting, which can be utilized by the vernacular writer for adaptation and translation.
  - (d) Technician. Able to erect and operate a modern short-wave transmitter and able to supervise the supply and maintenance of receivers. He should have some knowledge of studio control and the technical requirements of programme production under primitive conditions.
5. Pedal Wireless Installation

Such a scheme would make heavier demands on the technical equipment position and on technical personnel and on the training of personnel.

  - (a) Equipment. In addition to the transmitter needed in the normal broadcast installation, each point outside the base of operation would need also a small portable short-wave transmitter powered by a generator which in turn was driven



by the operator. The receiver would be incorporated in this equipment and microphones and switching panels would be supplied.

- (b) Staff. With the added complications it would be necessary to ensure that adequate technical assistance was available in case of breakdown and for repairs at base. The users of the pedal transmitter should have rather more knowledge of the instruments than would be required for other transmitters and therefore a longer training period in the use of the machinery. However, as such machines are in use in remote parts of Australia and are often used by women and children, it need not be assumed that the technical difficulties would be insurmountable.

#### 6. Pre-Literacy Broadcasting

If it is assumed that these broadcasts would be directed in the first place to subjects connected with the life of the people and later would include topics of wider implications, a mission would need three sections: technical experts in the subjects of instruction; broadcasting technicians as suggested in 4 (a,b,c); radio technicians.

The technical experts engaged in the work of education would be responsible for the material of the broadcasts and, as this should be closely related to the life of the community, it could be supplied only after study in the field.

Therefore the preliminary stage would be a survey of the area by the various experts and a pooling of information in the fields covered, i.e. agriculture, health, handicrafts, etc.

Material so gathered would be then handed to the broadcasting team to prepare in a form suitable for broadcasting in complete co-ordination and co-operation with the organization responsible for the supply of pictorial and diagrammatic visual aids decided on by the experts themselves.

Once an organization had been established and a means of continuous production had been evolved, the experts would once more visit the field and either utilize the broadcasts or supervise their use by teachers trained to do so. Where the aim is to train local teachers at base and to send them into the field, the organization would be simpler as the expert would be available at base, over a greater length of time. Should it be possible to adopt pedal wireless for this purpose, the presence of the expert at base would be more or less obligatory and to a certain extent this would facilitate the production of programmes.

#### 7. Literacy Broadcasts

The actual organizational details would depend largely on the method of literacy teaching adopted.

However, whatever the method, the basic broadcasting requirements would be as outlined in 3 (a,b,c) and 4 (a,b,c,d).

Given the need for broadcasts to be integrated, both in time and contact, with the actual use of the educative material, it would be wise to strengthen the broadcasting staff by at least one. An administrative broadcasting officer could be usefully employed to ensure co-ordination by seeing that: the broadcast material is ready on time; that it is checked with the literacy material prescribed; that this literacy material does exist in the receiving centres; that instructional notes to the teachers where necessary have been sent; that transmission channels are operating, etc.

Where pedal wireless is employed, the arrangement of schedules of transmission, both for the parent station and the receiving-sending stations, will be a most important function of the scheme, and calls for considerable administrative skill.

#### 8. General

Sufficient has been said above to state the case for the use of broadcasting in fundamental education. It is largely an untried field but one in which it would be fruitful to experiment. It can never function independently, but with adequate organization and integration as one of the factors in a project, it should make a major contribution in any scheme for the educational development of underdeveloped countries. It is

imperative, however, that adequate equipment and staff be provided and that it is not relegated to the position of a minor adjunct to the more usual type of educational campaign. If it is to be utilized, pilot projects to establish the extent of its usefulness are essential.

## THE JAMAICA 3F (FOOD FOR FAMILY FITNESS) PROGRAMME: AN EXPERIMENT IN MASS EDUCATION

In 1945 the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission initiated its first mass education project in three of the most depressed areas of the island. The subject 'Better Nutrition' was chosen because it involves many related aspects of rural life such as agriculture and the right use of land, the home, health and family living, and is in itself one of the many pressing problems of the country.

The practical work of the campaign has been based on a systematic attempt to train voluntary local leaders and to rely on them to build up the community spirit which is essential for success.

### FOOD FOR FAMILY FITNESS

The experiment became widely known as the 3F (Food for Family Fitness) Campaign—and it is peculiarly interesting because, using as its spearhead a limited number of paid workers, it employs the technique of seeking out public spirited citizens with the qualities of leadership, giving them training in nutrition and in methods of mass education and relying on them to spread throughout the many districts and villages the message of better eating habits and increased food production for use in the home.

The areas of St. Elizabeth, Manchester and Guys Hill were chosen because of the great need that existed for the type of information the programme sought to convey and because previous efforts at welfare work in these areas had shown promise. Almost at once the campaign attracted the most satisfactory response not only from the village communities, on which it was based, but also from officers of government departments in the field such as the Jamaica Agricultural Society, the Health Education Department, the Department of Agriculture and such voluntary organizations as the Council of Voluntary Social Services, the Churches and the Jamaica Federation of Women.

This response, welcome as it was, indicated the possibility of some confusion and duplication of effort which, should they arise, must inevitably embarrass the campaign particularly if the programme was to be extended on the scale which seemed to be warranted by the importance of the work and the popular spirit it had already aroused. It was, therefore, decided to set up a Central Committee to provide a satisfactory instrument for ensuring in the field maximum co-ordination of the activities of the various organizations and departments engaged in the promotion of better rural living.

### SETTING UP AND WORK OF CENTRAL COMMITTEE

In 1947, the Central Advisory 3F Committee was established and organizations and departments concerned were invited to select representatives for appointment as members



of the committee. The committee was charged with the responsibility for planning campaigns, securing co-ordination of action by officers of the various educational agencies in the districts and reporting to the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission periodically on the three main phases of the work—training of leaders; operation of projects; the arrangement of annual achievement days or festivals to climax the year's activities.

The committee organized the production and publication of suitable simple literature and employed officers of the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission specially selected for this work to stir up interest, organize groups, give demonstrations and train voluntary leaders. Village instructors were appointed to assist these officers. All paid officers resided in the villages and undertook the detailed follow-up work.

The training given was particularly directed to individuals who showed keenness and aptitude for leadership. Careful selection and proper training were found to be vitally important at this stage, for the trainees were the foundation on which the campaign was built.

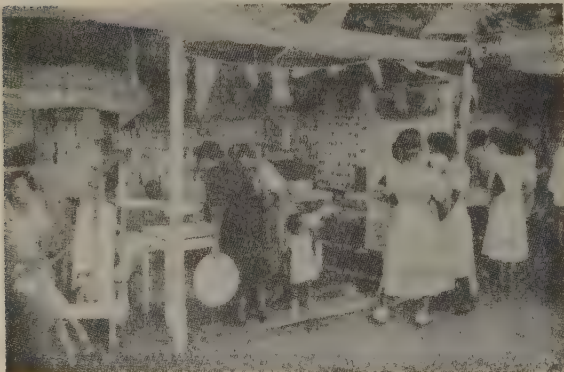
When their period of training was completed the voluntary workers undertook the main responsibility for the campaign, which included house to house visits, holding of public meetings, the launching of projects and the organizing of educational and recreational programmes.

#### TYPES OF PROJECTS

Villages were carefully broken down into sections, and every nook and corner covered, and as a result progress in the campaign was intensive and rapid. Great attention was paid to such enterprises as planting peanuts, better kitchen gardens, poultry and rabbit rearing, and these were usually undertaken as individual projects. On the other hand projects such as the uses of the egg, cereals in our daily diet, uses of milk and food preservation were usually undertaken first as a group project, and later as an individual project. Community projects usually involve such enterprises as 'Rescue of the Soil' in which soil conservation is emphasized.

For each project appropriate literature arranged in easy lessons is provided. These encouraged the study and adaptation of proper methods. All project work is climaxed by display of achievement at appropriate intervals and these exhibitions serve to develop in members a pride of achievement and provide the means of attracting new members to join in the campaign.

Many of these projects have led to truly remarkable achievements in village life. For example, jellies and other types of food preserves involving the use of over 20 different species of fruits have been made for the first time in hundreds of homes, while meat preserving projects have made it possible for poor families to have their own home-cured hams.



*Achievement Day: Preserves and other items are exhibited in stalls and information given on how to join the campaign.*

In the garden projects the emphasis is on planning for an all-year-round supply of vegetables. Proper rotation and manuring of crops are stressed. Invaluable assistance has been given in the campaign by the instructors of the Jamaica Agricultural Society in undertaking planting guides and supervision of projects involving the use of proper agricultural techniques.

Projects such as 'better kitchens' assist the householders to introduce time and labour-saving devices, to prepare nutritious and attractive meals and even to plan proper location, construction and arrangements of new kitchens in cases where new buildings are contemplated.

Members who complete their projects to the satisfaction of the 3F officers are awarded a small 3F certificate. The possession of six of these certificates qualifies a member for an award of a certificate of special merit which is highly prized.

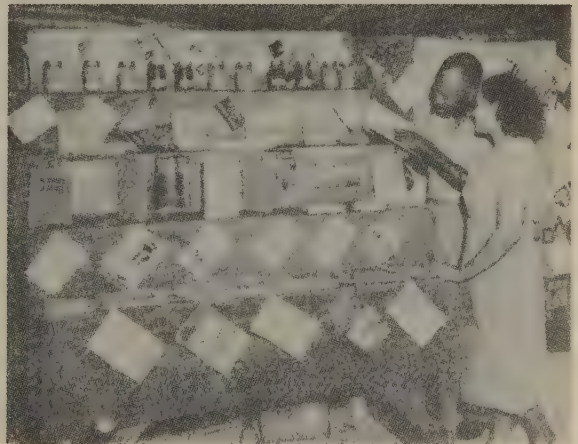
#### RESULTS OF THE CAMPAIGN

To date the campaign has spread into all 13 districts of the island served by the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission, and an increasing number of voluntary leaders have been presenting themselves each year for training. Up to the present almost 2,000 voluntary workers have received training. Other signs are abundant that education in nutrition has made a definite impression on rural communities, including improvement in cooking, serving and eating habits in hundreds of households throughout the country.

On each succeeding set of festivals and achievement days through the parishes the standard of display work exhibited has been improving and the attendance at these functions run into thousands. Another indication of the growing popularity of the campaign is the fact that the committee is finding it difficult to keep pace with the demands of members for literature; but by and large the most encouraging feature of the work has been the keen enthusiasm displayed by the voluntary leaders, the sacrifices they make in time and effort, and the readiness with which they undertake personal expenditure in order to secure training at 3F campaign camps and other centres.

In many cases these workers are not content to confine their educative efforts to the districts in which they live, but try their utmost to extend their influence further afield.

The experimental phase of the work is now passed, the techniques and methods of procedure adopted at the beginning of the campaign have proven themselves, and today throughout the countryside there is an abundance of men and women imbued with the idea of service who can be relied upon to build firmly and well the foundation of a happier and healthier Jamaica through the use of better nutritional methods.



*Literature Stall: 3F Achievement Day.*



# SOCIAL AND POLITICAL IMPLICATIONS IN THE CHOICE OF AN ORTHOGRAPHY

DONALD BURNS

*Editor's Note: Readers of the Unesco Monograph No. IV on the Haiti Pilot Project will recall that a section was devoted to the problem of language and the difficulties of establishing an acceptable orthography for Haitian Creole. This problem has yet to be finally solved and it must be solved by the Haitian authorities themselves, for it is the function of Unesco to provide its Member States with technical assistance and expert advice, but not to dictate their educational policy.*

*Mr. Burns has recently returned from Haiti where he has worked as a Unesco expert giving technical assistance to the Government in the production of textbooks and reading materials. The editors feel, therefore, that the issues discussed in this article will be of interest to others elsewhere who are faced with the choice of an orthography for literacy teaching in the mother-tongue as a prelude to instruction in a second language.*

*We hope to print a further article by Mr. Burns on textbook problems in a future issue.*

One of the most fascinating achievements of the twentieth century has been the recording of many languages for the first time in permanent form. For the most part these have been transcribed in an orthography which is as nearly phonetic as possible, for it is widely accepted that a phonetic orthography is linguistically more accurate than any other and offers fewer difficulties to newly literate persons. Phonetic transcriptions have for example been used by the United States Bureau of Indian Affairs<sup>1</sup> in the preparation of teaching materials in the Indian languages of Navajo, Lakota and Hopi and a phonetic code has been used to transcribe the many languages of Liberia which have now been reduced to writing.<sup>2</sup>

But it would be a fallacy to assume that the choice of an orthography can in all cases be determined solely on grounds which are linguistically or pedagogically desirable. Indeed the pressure of social groups within the community may make it difficult if not impossible to secure the acceptance of the linguist's choice, however evident its advantages may appear to be. There can be few countries which have experienced more acutely the problem of choosing an orthography than Haiti—a country which on account of its situation and the influences to which it is subject, reveals the complexity of the problem in a way which must be unique. It is believed that a review of the various attempts made there to arrive at an acceptable orthography may have relevance to situations elsewhere.

## THE FIRST LITERACY CAMPAIGN IN HAITI

The official language of the Republic of Haiti is French. It is estimated that this is spoken by some 11 per cent of the population of Port au Prince but the proportion is certainly not as high for the republic as a whole.<sup>3</sup> The total population numbers over 3,100,000, all of whom speak Creole. This is a problem with which the existing educational system is manifestly unable to cope through the medium of French and much thought has been given in recent years to the possibility of educating illiterate adults through the medium of Creole.

<sup>1</sup> Unesco Report A/AC.35/L.62.

<sup>2</sup> Report to Unesco dated 1951 by Norma Bloomquist.

<sup>3</sup> Recensement de la ville de Port-au-Prince, 1949.

The first steps<sup>1</sup> in this direction were taken by Pastor McConnell who demonstrated the possibility of teaching adults in Creole in May 1940 to the then Minister of Education. McConnell used an alphabet based on 'the International Phonetic System but simplified so as to use only the letters and accents of the French alphabet and modified to facilitate the passage to French by those who learn to read Creole'.<sup>2</sup>

Following the visit of Dr. Laubach to Haiti in 1943, this was revised to bring it closer to the consistent aspects of French spelling. Phoneme /e/ for example was represented by *é*, /u/ by *ou* instead of *u*, and *ch* and *j* replaced *sh* and *zh* for the phonemes /ʃ/ and /ʒ/.<sup>3</sup> The Government of President Elie Lescot then launched a literacy campaign using the phonetic orthography which was now called the 'Laubach Method' and a weekly paper was published in Creole (*Limie-Fòs-Progrè*) as well as books on agriculture, arithmetic, hygiene and history. This campaign lost its impetus following the accession of President Estimé in 1946, the newspaper was discontinued and the enthusiasm of many of the voluntary teachers waned following the change of government.

One abiding result of this campaign, however, was the creation of a phonetic orthography for Creole; and indeed there seemed to be no reason at that time why the language should be transcribed otherwise. So little had been written in Creole that the Laubach method could scarcely be said to have a competitor; it had already been used successfully in the initial literacy campaign (1943-46); it was based on sound linguistic principles and it was recommended by people having wide experience in other countries. On the contrary not to use this form of orthography would have appeared illogical and Dr. Hall was able to recommend it unreservedly when making his report to Unesco in 1949.<sup>4</sup>

Despite these *a priori* advantages, however, the two organizations now carrying the major burden of adult education in Haiti have adopted other orthographies than that of McConnell and Laubach and the phonetic orthography which the latter had sponsored in earlier years is now used only in the adult classes of the pilot project at Marbial. This change has come about almost entirely as a result of the social pressures which are discussed below.

#### THE INFLUENCE OF FRENCH CULTURE

Some enquiry into the purpose for which a vernacular language is to be used arises inevitably during the choice of its orthography. In Haiti where no Creole is taught at any stage in any of the country's schools, and where virtually the whole of the literate population is literate in French, it is understandable that the vernacular should be considered as no more than a bridge to French and should be accepted as a medium of instruction on this condition alone.

Many educated Haitians doubt whether Creole is sufficiently developed in ideas or structure to enable it to serve as an independent medium of instruction and a substantial section of public opinion is therefore disposed to favour that orthography which is likely to bring the illiterate adult most quickly to an acquaintance with French. It has been widely presumed that an orthography which is modelled closely on that of French offers this advantage over a more phonetic orthography such as that of McConnell and Laubach.

Others recognize that they share the culture of French in a peculiarly intimate way

<sup>1</sup> No reference is made in this brief account to the earlier orthography used by Georges Sylvain and others.

<sup>2</sup> Preface to *You can learn Creole*.

<sup>3</sup> Hall, R. A. *Report on Linguistic Survey of Haitian Creole* (1949), p. 9.

<sup>4</sup> 'The Laubach orthography is absolutely the best orthography which can be found for Creole'. Article by Hall, R. A. in *Le Nouvelliste*, 27 April 1949.



(though Haiti has been independent of the metropolis since 1804) and hesitate to support any proposal which might conceivably weaken the long established link between Haiti and France. For these, literacy in French is the ultimate goal and where Creole must be used (as in the education of adults) a gallicized orthography seems preferable by far to a phonetic one.

#### THE LAUBACH METHOD—A POLITICAL AND SECTARIAN ISSUE

As public opinion became aware of the broader issues which might be at stake in the choice of an orthography, support for or against a phonetic orthography acquired rapidly a political connotation. While the protagonists of a phonetic spelling felt they were the apostles of reason and progress the supporters of a gallicized version became convinced that they were defending a tradition and a nationality. In particular, they took exception to the fact that the most prominent supporters of a phonetic orthography were both foreigners (McConnell and Laubach) and that several features of this phonetic alphabet conflicted with French usage. The following extract from a booklet which appeared in 1947<sup>1</sup> will give some idea of the vigour with which this polemic was conducted.

'And what about the English? The McConnell-Laubach method certainly allows Anglo-Saxons to read Creole easily and the circumflex accent, which they do not have in their own language, helps them. Let us point out, however, that Dr. Laubach was not able to use the circumflex accent or the *tilde* to render the sounds *an*, *in*, *on* in English in his own country. . . .

'The reader may also note that in South America the Laubach method adapted to Spanish-speaking countries uses the transcript *an*, *en*, *on* quite simply for the nasal vowels. (Language is a social fact!) However the McConnell-Laubach Creole cannot be turned into simple English. By using *k* which is necessary, *w* which is necessary, *g* where we put *gn* in French, and even the circumflex accent for the nasal vowels (a symbol which is redundant in errors) you cannot change Creole (which has a French vocabulary) into English (which has an Anglo-Saxon one).'

For many, this reference to 'foreign elements' makes an appeal to national sentiment and gives an emotional content to the question of orthography which can no longer be debated on grounds strictly linguistic or pedagogic.

It is true no doubt that the majority of adults who stand to benefit most from a solution of this problem are unaware of such arguments but they are as susceptible to the sentiments on which these are based as are their employers and teachers. Thus it was largely owing to the insistence of the adult pupils in the classes of the Ministry of Labour that the Laubach orthography was later abandoned in favour of a modified orthography.

The views of the religious bodies in Haiti were no less important than the political issue already mentioned, for the possibility of educating many thousands of illiterate adults through the medium of Creole was of fundamental importance to the Church and in the early years of the campaign against illiteracy, the archbishop had given full approval to the efforts of Dr. Laubach. As a result the Laubach orthography was at that time accepted by every religious body which was actively concerned in education.

As the view gained ground that a gallicized orthography would be of greater value than a phonetic one in helping the adult to pass to French, the various teaching bodies of the Catholic Church gradually abandoned the Laubach orthography in favour of orthographies closely modelled on French. One of these is exemplified in the *Petit Catéchisme* and *Catéchisme Français-Créole*, two booklets published in 1948, and another has been devised more recently by the Oblat Brothers at Camp Perrin.

The movement away from a phonetic orthography and in favour of one more closely

<sup>1</sup> *Débats sur le Créole et le Folklore*, C. Pressoir.

linked with French is thus the outcome of a complex situation in which the tradition of French culture, national interest and the established church have all played a part and there is now a considerable body of educated opinion which is disposed against the Laubach orthography on one or all of these grounds.

How far, it may be asked, are these views representative of the bulk of the population in Haiti?

#### ECONOMIC CONSIDERATIONS

For many Haitians who are illiterate and particularly those who are able to attend classes, learning to read, write and number has above all an economic significance, and the Haitian who can speak French has a considerable advantage both in the choice of employment and the remuneration he can expect in comparison with his less favoured compatriots. The adult worker moreover attaches far greater significance to proficiency in French than to ability in Creole, for the latter offers none of the economic or cultural advantages of the former, nor does it enjoy the prestige of official recognition in the schools.

In so far as the working classes have been able to express any opinion at all they have favoured that system of instruction which they expect will enable them to learn French most quickly. It is reported that attendance at the adult centres of the Ministry of Education increased quickly following the change from the Laubach to a modified orthography in July 1951.

'It is necessary to point out that the improvement in Creole orthography, based on discussions which took place under the auspices of the present Government, is due to the efforts of the experts of the Adult Education Service and of Mr. C. F. Pressoir, who has linguistic experience. It may be said that this orthography, which is always phonetic and takes particular account of Haitian bilingualism, is universally approved. It came into effect on 1 July last and is yielding surprising results. Adults who formerly refused to attend certain centres have come back to them as if by magic. The transition from Creole to French is becoming easier.' Annual Report of the Director, (1950-51).

The Director of Workers' Classes (organized by the Ministry of Labour) encountered a similar expression of public opinion in favour of a modified orthography.

'When the educational programme was established, Laubach's phonetic method (orthography) was adopted as a method for teaching illiterates; but employers, as well as the workers themselves, have never ceased to protest. At one moment, certain employers did not hesitate to refuse us their moral support, i.e. rejected the teaching method in question. We finally realized that the illiterate who had been taught by the Laubach method, and who had learned to sign his name in accordance with it, was mercilessly ridiculed and regarded as a "being apart". At work, and elsewhere, a number of people spared no efforts to convince him that he had not learnt anything at the centres. Consequently, the adults began steadily to lose confidence . . . and at the same time the initial enthusiasm began to disappear.' Annual Report of the Director, (1950-51).<sup>1</sup>

The attitude of adults attending classes of the Ministry of Labour may have been further strengthened by the employers' dissatisfaction with the Laubach orthography

<sup>1</sup> It is difficult to illustrate the use of an orthography in a brief sample but the following sentences may serve to show the great similarity between the orthographies now being used by the Ministries of Education and Labour. The Laubach transcription of the same sentences is given below (p. 84).

'Provèb la di: kouté sé rémèd kò.  
Ositou, anvan Ti-Jean bati kay li, li pran  
konsèy tout moun: injeniè, ofisié sanité'.

(Ministry of Education)



for it is reported that they viewed with disfavour a 'method' which did not teach their employees to sign their names on the pay roll in French. This objection is now met by teaching all adults attending these classes to write their names in French independently of the orthography used for learning to read and write.

One may justly question the value of opinions expressed by such groups of adults, but it is surely significant that these opinions were expressed and they undoubtedly strengthened the arguments already developed against a phonetic orthography in Creole.

#### THE INFLUENCE OF EXPERIENCE AND EXISTING ORGANIZATIONS

The main case against the phonetic orthography devised by McConnell and revised by Laubach is therefore twofold.

By using letters (such as *w*) and conventions (such as the circumflex to indicate nasilization) which are un-French, it arouses the opposition of many who are quite prepared to accept Creole as a medium of instruction but not in a form which may seem to weaken the link between Haiti and French culture.

Moreover it seems to ignore the fact that most Haitians will wish to proceed afterwards to a study of French for which an acquaintance with French spelling in the initial stages of literacy would be some preparation.

To these may now be added a third factor—the influence which the two large organizations now using a modified orthography will inevitably have on public opinion.

The rapidity with which the Ministries of Education and Labour have been able to expand their organizations and increase enrolments during the last 18 months is evidence of the confidence which the public has in their efforts.

Some idea of the growth of these two organizations may be gained from the table given below.

	1950		1951		1952 <sup>1</sup>	
	Centres	Members	Centres	Members	Centres	Members
Education	125	4,015	200	10,667	272	8,293
Labour	191	4,774	158	3,160	207	5,533

Attendance figures are in every case the maximum recorded.

Both organizations award literacy certificates to adults who can read a passage picked at random in the 'reader', write their name on the blackboard and work a sum in addition or subtraction involving numbers up to 100 and it is claimed that this level of attainment can be reached by most adults within three months if they attend classes regularly. The conditions for the award of a certificate are thus very similar and the

'Provèb la di: kouté sé rémèd kò.  
Ositou, anvan Ti-Jan bati kay li, li pran  
konsèy tout moun: injéniè, ofisié sanité'.

(Ministry of Labour)

'Provèb la di: kouté sé rémèd kò.  
Ositou, âvâ Ti-Jâ bati kay li, li prâ  
kônsej tout moun: èjéniè, ofisié sanité'.

(Laubach)

In French this is literally: 'Le proverbe dit: écouter c'est le remède du corps. Aussi, avant que Petit-Jean ne bâtisse sa maison, il prend conseil de tout le monde: ingénieur, officier, sanitaire.'

<sup>1</sup> First five months.

following figures have been obtained of the certificates awarded: Ministry of Education—1950 (587); 1951 (661); 1952<sup>1</sup> (144); Ministry of Labour—1950 (N. A.); 1951 (2,710); 1952<sup>1</sup> (81).

The classes of these two organizations now make the biggest contribution by far to adult education in Haiti and have evidently won the confidence of thousands of adults by the methods they are using. Inevitably, the experience they have gained and their obvious appeal constitute a *de facto* argument in favour of the methods and orthographies which they have adopted and against the Laubach orthography which they have rejected.

## CONCLUSION

Dr. K. L. Pike states in a paper prepared for the 1951 Unesco Meeting of Experts on the use of Vernacular Languages that: 'It needs to be emphasized that the science of forming an orthography should by no means be considered limited to the science of linguistics. Rather it must be emphasized again and again that the social sciences and psychology must play their part, else an orthography may result which will be vehemently repudiated by the people.'

The truth of this observation seems to be admirably illustrated in the vicissitudes which have fallen on the phonetic orthography of Haitian Creole. The linguistic accuracy of this orthography has never been seriously in question but opposition on non-linguistic grounds has been encountered from a surprisingly wide variety of sources.

Social pressures have inevitably far greater influence in the choice of an orthography than the appeal to linguistic accuracy; and when these reflect doubts as to the value of Creole as a medium of instruction or—more important still—apprehension as to its ultimate effect on the national culture, the choice of an orthography becomes a matter of the greatest moment.

At such times, and in such conditions, a decision will always be forced by the social and psychological pressures to which Pike refers, for the issue is one which then exceeds the competence of the linguist.

## PARK MUSEUMS AS COMMUNITY CENTRES

RALPH H. LEWIS

A community centre, as we think of it, provides constructive leisure-time activities for people who come to it voluntarily in search of recreation, knowledge and companionship. From this standpoint, park museums may be considered as centres serving community interests, particularly in the fields of natural history and history. They may illustrate what small museums of specialized and local scope can do as community centres.

Park museums are located in many units of the National Park System of the U.S.A. and in some state and local parks. Each of these museums is restricted to the interpretation of its own park. The communities which park museums serve are usually peculiar in being transient; an individual is part of a park community for an hour, a day, or perhaps a week. This condition and its fairly complex corollaries tend to distinguish the work of park museums from that of urban community centres. Limited time and

<sup>1</sup> First five months.



the mental attitudes of people on a vacation affect the demands they make on the museums. A perhaps surprising proportion of park visitors are hungry for knowledge, eager for help in getting the most out of their stay in the park. Anyone who doubts that statement should see them brave the discomforts of a cold night and wet log seats to hear a naturalist lecture on the geology of the park. In the 20 years, 1931-51, 10,343,937 people entered Yosemite National Park; over 8,000,000 of them visited the Yosemite Museum. Enough park museums are located in or near centres of population, however, to have demonstrated that they can serve resident communities equally well.

What do visitors want in park museums? In the first place they want reliable information. For this purpose park museums maintain an information desk attended by an employee who can answer questions about the history or natural history of the park as readily and accurately as those concerning the nearest gas station or the best route to somewhere. The information desk is equipped with free literature giving essential information about the park features and regulations and about the schedule of educational activities. The information desk of a park museum usually offers for sale a variety of publications selected to cultivate the interests stimulated by the museums.

As most park visitors are in a place that is strange to them, they need orientation. The museum provides geographical orientation in the form of accurate and graphic local maps, and often a topographic model also. That the models are used is evidenced by the fact that the paint is continually worn thin over the points of special interest by the touch of innumerable index fingers. Another type of orientation attempted in several park museums, particularly the newer ones, is the display of a brief statement of the significance of the park. It helps visitors to know, for example, that the Grand Canyon is not only magnificent scenery but a superlative cross-section of earth history. It helps to be told simply and clearly why this place is important.

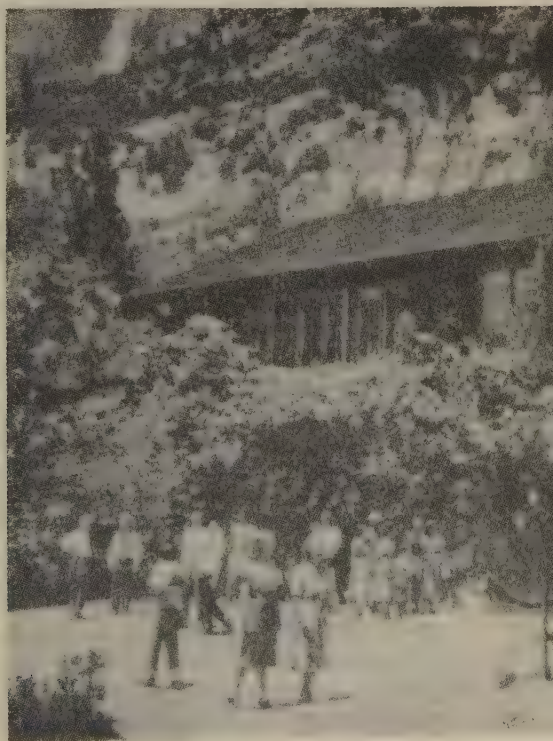
The most important part of a park museum is its exhibits which are designed to explain or interpret the park in accordance with the idea that in order to enjoy the park fully a visitor must understand it. Their form and subject matter are strictly controlled by this objective, and the result, to the best of our ability, is a carefully planned sequence of displays which combine to tell a story to meet the needs of the visitor for interpretation rather than based on the accidental contents of the museum collections. In a battlefield park, for example, the exhibits illustrate the events which led to the battle; compare the opposing forces as to size, equipment and leadership; explain the key events in the battle and visualize it; and then indicate its main effects. The story is told with selected specimens supported by pictures, maps, models and other graphic devices. The minimum number of exhibits required to tell the story is employed, for the visitor should not be kept longer than necessary from the actual features of the park.

In or near many park museums are facilities for personal contacts between groups of visitors and the naturalist or historian. An observation room or terrace overlooking park features, a lecture room, or a campfire amphitheatre may be provided. It is equipped with projector and screen, or specially designed maps or charts, and in cases where limited personnel must furnish a standard set of explanations repeatedly, with recorded talks, sometimes synchronized with slides. The groups which use these facilities are usually composed of the individual visitors, but in many instances they are organized classes. These may be elementary school classes from nearby towns, travelling summer school classes from colleges, military officers studying tactics on the spot. Clubs and other societies also make use of these facilities when the park is close to a town.

Park museums are characteristically the focal points for the rich variety of educational activities which are a separate, but co-ordinated, part of park educational programmes. Historical tours, nature walks, auto caravan trips, all-day hikes and self-guiding nature trails start from the museum. Wherever possible the interpretive staff has its offices, laboratories, study collections and reference library in the museum. Similarly, specialists who come to the park for research are given work space in the museum.

In these varied ways a park museum serves the informal educational needs of its

community. Perhaps other museums can learn from it some of the advantages of analysing community needs, thorough planning to meet known needs, rigorous limitation of size and scope, and close integration with other educational programmes. Such advantages are obtained principally by a technique of planning and secondarily by a co-operative system of professional services. A park museum starts, not with a collection or a building, but with a general development plan (called in the National Park Service the 'museum prospectus'). In the prospectus a thorough analysis is made of the museum needs of the park, weighing the many local factors which may affect museum development. On this basis a general plan is proposed to meet the needs discovered. The plan clearly defines the scope of the museum, determines its proper location and space requirements, decides on the story to be told by the exhibits, and estimates costs. Usually prepared by the educational officer in the park who knows the local situation intimately and who will use the museum in his work, the prospectus is subjected to critical review by park administrators, subject matter specialists and the central museum staff. After the prospectus has been approved, an exhibit plan is drafted. It is a set of designs and specifications for a series of exhibits which will convert the park story into visual form. Lists of specimens needed and the wording for the labels are included in this plan. Only after the exhibit plan has been reviewed and approved, does the construction of exhibits begin. In the National Park Service a small central staff of professional museum workers is maintained to serve the technical needs of all the scattered park museums, providing a good standard of quality in an economical manner. The professional staff carries out the final designing of exhibits, revises labelling, constructs the exhibits and installs them in the museum.



*One of the busiest places in Yosemite Valley is the Yosemite Museum, where visitors find the key to the natural features in the park.*



## OPEN FORUM

### *Some Observations on Fundamental Education Campaigns<sup>1</sup>*

DR. I. RODRIGUEZ BOU

Two world wars and a nerve-wracking cold war waged as an aftermath of World War II have pointed out the ever-increasing difficulty that people have in understanding one another. Two-thirds of mankind lack the basic instruments for understanding, the elementary knowledge that fortifies reasoning and the foundations on which sound attitudes of human decency must be built.

We are flooded with literature on adult education, rural education, community education, social education, fundamental education. So I shall ask to be excused from elaborating on a subject that has already been so well covered in books, lectures and speeches.

Permit me, rather, to assume the attitude of a critic who has observed in various continents and in a good many countries the many efforts being made to help people through education.

When people are hungry for something and are given access to it, they may get a dangerous overdose of what they have been craving. It seems to me that we are getting an overdose of 'literacy campaigns' and too sweet a diet of fundamental education. This overdose and this sweet diet suggests the full-page advertisements of colourful desserts in popular magazines: strawberries, slices of pineapple and bananas, all smothered in whipped cream. Propaganda, pleasant films and pictures are being mistaken more often than is healthy for the genuine education of people. The production and distribution of films, filmstrips, booklets, pamphlets and so on are being confused with the actual ability of people to read, understand and acquire knowledge.

We must not allow the politically-minded and the salesmen of education to take the ball away from the professionals in the field. We do not need as much propaganda and salesmanship as we are getting. What we do need is more accomplishment at a minimum cost. It is true, perhaps, that there is some need for propaganda and salesmanship. But there is more need for the development of better techniques, better methods, better materials for the type of work that has to be done in literacy the world over. We need more and better measuring instruments, more and better techniques of evaluation.

These are some of the things that I have seen, at various places in various countries, which, I believe, call for revision and for some hard thought:

1. Literacy campaigns, originally launched to gratify the vanity of, and serve as good propaganda for those in power, should be re-evaluated. Well-trained people, responsible public servants, should see to it that advertising costs do not claim the lion's share of funds available for stimulating and carrying through educational programmes. The important contribution is not the declaration of people as literate as soon as they can read—say 40 words—but that these people, through their own efforts and with the help of educators, are brought to a higher standard of living—spiritually, socially, economically and culturally.
2. International organizations backing literacy campaigns and programmes should devote more time, money and effort and less publicity, to the development of true pilot projects, with more emphasis on the development of techniques, methods, materials and inexpensive equipment. Let us not abuse fundamental education and make it a cover-all term under which inefficiency and 'professional experimentation' can be cloaked.

<sup>1</sup> Paper presented at the Seminar on The Role of Adult Education in the Caribbean Area, held at Jamaica, B.W.I. from 1-17 September 1952.

3. In pilot projects, care should be taken not to overdo the use of such expressions as 'environmental variations', 'special circumstances', 'differences in customs and traditions', 'peculiarities of the region', 'nativism', 'individual differences' and 'regional idiosyncracies', to cover up the lack of long-range planning and lack of administrative and technical ability. Those of us who have travelled around have seen much day-by-day improvising. Education of any sort is, and must be, a slow, painstaking enterprise. It requires plans that are well thought-out, aims that are well established, procedures that have been well tested. Trial and error or improvisation should not be confused with careful experimentation. The trial and error method is defensible when no other way of learning is in sight. But it is expensive, discouraging and useless when other sounder and tested principles of learning are well known and available.
4. Ways should be found to ensure that those who make use of international scholarships and fellowships, and are given opportunities to attend seminars and congresses organized by international organizations are able to fulfil the moral obligations which such opportunities imply. Professors and students trained under any of these plans should be guaranteed participation in the development of projects at home. I have known cases of professionals trained abroad in special projects and in university courses who have later returned home only to find themselves working in fields outside their line of preparation—and, in too many cases, without any kind of work at all. Such a situation not only causes disillusionment, but brings about a waste of badly needed talent and human resources.
5. The candidates for scholarships should be selected strictly on their merits and not on the extent of their social or political influence. They should follow those courses of study which enable them to derive the greatest benefit from their stay in the countries to which they are sent. There are many who seek scholarships who assume a tourist's attitude and enrol in as few courses as they possibly can to insure themselves plenty of leisure time. The habitual scholarship and fellowship seekers should be discouraged.
6. International projects should not be permitted to turn into experiments for enthroning one school of thought in methods and techniques. Local positions should be dispensed on the basis of competence. Politics and patronage should be stamped out. Underdeveloped areas, particularly, need more honest professional work and less political patronage.
7. Local educators in underdeveloped areas should not be made to feel inferior because of being 'native'. Leaders in these areas should be given every opportunity to prove their worth and to develop initiative in different fields, including education.  
The natives who are to continue to wrestle with their own problems should be trained and encouraged to acquire the necessary practical knowledge. Outside experts, technicians and advisers, should be used to help train and develop local talent to the maximum. But outside experts, sooner or later, leave, and the problems are left to the people of the country. The sooner local leadership (open-minded and critical of all sorts of influences—but not chauvinistic) comes into play, the better the chances of success in the struggle against ignorance, poverty and disease.
8. On the other hand, care must be exercised to prevent local leaders of fundamental education from developing a defensive attitude towards the suggestions and ideas of foreign experts and educators simply because they come from foreigners. This attitude makes for in-breeding, which is as dangerous in education as in genetics.
9. There is a dangerous malady abroad among many leaders in fundamental education—a certain aversion for, and contempt of techniques and experimentation. There is the notion that fundamental education fares better under empiricism, old devices, and horse-and-buggy procedures. I have even heard directors of pilot projects claim that, as underdeveloped countries are today more or less where the advanced ones were in the sixteenth century, their problems cannot be faced with twentieth-century



knowledge, techniques, and procedures. Thus, according to them, we should be using sixteenth-century methods today. That is to say, to cure appendicitis, give the patient a concoction of herbs. This is the same line of thought of those who say that Indian children should not be given toys because they don't know how to play with them. How can we expect an illiterate to know how to read a book if he never before has had a chance to taste reading? This is an attitude with which we all have to contend.

10. Too many projects for fighting illiteracy and for putting fundamental education on wheels, are too much concerned with the spectacular, with show-window psychology. Even when projects are still in a stage at which they have nothing to show, packs of visitors throng in on the organizers. The planning suffers, and time needed for valuable activities has to be given over to taking care of the visitors. When failure comes, a lot of explaining has to be done. No matter what explanations are given, faith is gradually lost in the sponsoring organizations. The spectacular has its place in this world, I suppose, but I have never seen much room for it in education. In education what is desirable is that fewer things be attempted, in a gradual, thorough way, if positive changes in peoples', attitudes are sought. True education should account for changes in attitudes and the development of desires to improve life and life's ways. These objectives are not accomplished by government decrees giving something to people—be this something a building, a road, or a movie projector. They are not accomplished, either, by making a few films for propaganda about activities that are yet incipient. In short, the final test is the change accomplished in the lives of the peoples.
11. The initial enthusiasm in literacy work, in fundamental education projects and activities, should not misguide people. As a director of a literacy campaign once put it, 'people may learn a great deal in 40 days that they readily forget in 40 more days'. People who have had poor habits of health, diet, living, and entertainment, cannot be expected to change their life-long ways of doing things overnight, on the basis of the enthusiasm of well-wishers.

Allowances should be made, of course, for the fallibility of all human endeavour. Flaws of the kind that I have spoken about are, logically, to be expected in projects of fundamental education, and in literacy campaigns, in which the human element is paramount. This is especially true in those areas called 'underdeveloped', where many of the activities are conducted by personnel which is composed quite frequently of persons who are not technical experts. Moreover, when these activities are backed by international organizations, the idea seems to gain force that the financial backing is unlimited. And, consequently, more money is spent than correct practices can justify. But we should look at these shortcomings in their true proportions, and remember that experience is being accumulated from which we can derive model techniques and methods.

# NOTES AND RECORDS

## INTERNATIONAL

### THE WORK OF UN FOR COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT

As the programme of technical assistance to underdeveloped countries has expanded, increasing concern has been expressed that the money and experience expended shall result in lasting benefits for the people of the underdeveloped lands. Along with this growing concern, there has been increasing interest in, and enthusiasm for, community welfare projects. Representatives of developed and underdeveloped countries alike have felt that it is only by stimulating the initiative and releasing the energy of a local community as a whole that any permanent improvement of social conditions can be achieved. This belief was embodied in 1951 in Resolution 390 (XIII) of the Economic and Social Council, under the terms of which the Secretary-General of the United Nations was requested to undertake a thorough study of community welfare centres, and, in association with the Technical Assistance Board and the Specialized Agencies, to promote the development of such centres.

As a result of the work involved in this assignment on 1 April 1952, the United Nations Department of Social Affairs in collaboration with the Technical Assistance Administration established a joint unit entitled 'Community Organization and Development' which now functions as part of the Social Welfare Division of the United Nations.

Community organization and development is essentially a process of ensuring better living for a community by utilizing the latent resources of that community. In this context, ignorance is latent knowledge, and disease is often latent health—both of which constitute a reservoir of potential energy for the benefit of the community. Utilization of such resources involves the minimum of capital investment but it provides benefits in which all can share and which are of lasting value. This is done by employing various techniques to make the community fully aware of the need for change, and assisting it to make the required improvement itself.

Not only, however, does community organization and development ensure the maxi-

mum diffusion of benefit with the minimum capital expenditure, but it makes possible the raising of living standards as a whole. Too often a certain social welfare service is developed in isolation from, or possibly at the expense of, other equally important services. One might say that a splendid column is raised (often dedicated to the higher education of a few), but that the surrounding countryside and people are left untouched. The community approach, on the other hand, tries to erect a serviceable building on the ground plan of the whole community. In the community itself, there exist not only the resources, but also the integration necessary for improvement. The elements of change are already present. Ideally, therefore, community organization and development might be described as the community catalyst of change for the better.

The work of the United Nations in so extensive a field falls into two main categories. The first category is concerned with research, collection of material, evaluation of projects and the formulation of principles; the second comprises service to governments based on requests for technical assistance in this field.

The research work that is being carried on by the United Nations is helped in large measure by the replies of 30 governments and many non-governmental organizations to a specially prepared inquiry concerning community centre organization which was circulated in 1951. Together with other material assembled by the United Nations, these replies are being utilized in the preparation of a series of country monographs showing what progress has already been made in the field of community organization and development in individual countries throughout the world. Monographs on some 15 countries are in an advanced stage of preparation. Special case studies 'in depth' of particularly interesting community projects are also being made—at Nayarit in Mexico, Sevagram in India, and at two centres in Egypt. Additionally, an international handbook for community leaders is being written by Dr. I. T. Sanders, Head of the Department of Sociology at the University of Kentucky. However, as yet research is still in its fact-



finding stages and it is too early to formulate universally valid general principles concerning community organization and development. A progress report will be made to the ninth session of the Social Commission in March 1953, but a more definitive report will not be ready until next year.

A bibliography of important literature in the field has been compiled, and a roster of specially qualified experts has been made. The experts themselves are briefed in the needs and knowledge of the United Nations prior to undertaking any mission connected with community development. In addition, special survey missions are planned to gather information concerning the most important projects being undertaken in underdeveloped countries. In 1952 such a survey of the Caribbean and Mexico was made by three experts. During the first half of 1953 two small missions are making surveys of selected community development projects in South-East Asia and the Middle East. The findings of such missions are put before seminars which are convoked from time to time to ensure the optimum diffusion of technical information. The most recent seminar of this kind was that held in Brazil in January of this year for experts from Latin American countries.

The following governments have recently requested assistance with community development projects: Afghanistan, Burma, Greece, Haiti, Paraguay and Yugoslavia.

The nature of community welfare work involves the closest co-ordination between the work of the United Nations and that of the Specialized Agencies. It involves co-operation with Unesco in fundamental education, WHO in community health and sanitation work, ILO in the field of co-operatives and cottage industries, and FAO in rural welfare activities. A good example of the type of co-operation practised is that the United Nations in answer to a request from Unesco is sending community development experts to serve as members of the staff working in the Unesco fundamental education training centres in Mexico and in Egypt. As the recently published United Nations Preliminary Report on the World Social Situation has stressed, poverty, disease and illiteracy are so widespread and inseparable that it is only by the concerted effort of all the Agencies concerned that real progress can be made.

AN EXPERIMENT BY THE CONAKRY  
MINING COMPANY (FRENCH GUINEA)

According to a recent report of the Labour

Inspector in Guinea: '... workers' education and the choice of skilled workers must help to limit, so far as possible, the number of accidents—at least those befalling certain specialized types of worker, such as those using machine-tools, stokers, electricians, etc. The mediocrity of the hands and the slow rhythm of work noted in the various yards and workshops may be due to the almost total illiteracy of the workers, their ignorance of French (which should here be the vehicular language) and their helplessness when faced with entirely new techniques.'

In an attempt to remedy this state of things, an experiment was undertaken at the end of August 1952 by the Conakry Mining Company. It bore on 40 workers who were completely illiterate and unable to understand one word of French; and it was conducted according to directives prepared by a team of psycho-technicians who had examined a large number of labourers.

### *Objects of the Experiment*

1. To teach the workers reading, writing and arithmetic, and also how to speak French; the topics chosen were related to their manual activities.
2. To give them an elementary social training: hygiene, understanding of their personal responsibility, and knowledge of social rules.

### *Programme*

1. French: acquisition of a vocabulary of approximately 500 words completed by technical terms.

*Language:* direct method used in the fundamental education centres at Labé. The language lessons are illustrated by a film, by filmstrips made at the same time as the film, and by drawings. For the latter, a process has been devised which permits the gestures and attitudes shown in the film to be accurately reproduced.

*Reading:* global method combined with the syllabic method. Reading-cards are distributed among the students. To start with, these cards are printed in script; later, both script and printed letters are used.

*Writing:* writing-cards printed in script are distributed among the students, who trace the letters with a pencil and learn to write by themselves. After the eighth lesson, i.e. two months after the beginning of the experiment, they are given reading-cards with script letters on the front and printed

letters on the back. These cards are illustrated with drawings based on the film and the filmstrips.

2. Hygiene and social training: these two subjects are taught mainly through the medium of drawings and films. The lesson is arranged as follows: observation of the drawings, illustration of the vocabulary, filmstrip illustrating the observation and language lesson, projection of a moving film, checking of the results, and writing lesson.

The films were made in order to: (a) illustrate the language lessons; (b) show the best techniques for using a shovel, pick, wheelbarrow, pitchfork, etc.; (c) assist in the education of group leaders, by showing a rational organization of the yards and contrasting it with faulty organization; (d) avoid injuries to workers by showing the most usual errors or omissions and by indicating the precautions which should be taken in order to prevent them; (e) teach hygiene, first-aid to be given in the event of accidents, etc.

The first films dealing with the organization of the yards, the use of a shovel or wheelbarrow and the loading of lorries, have, although incomplete, greatly assisted in the teaching of the language.

## Results

Checking effected during the eighth lesson gave the following results:

*Language:* 20 out of the 40 workers responded correctly to the following: What is your name? What is the name of your father, your mother, your village? How old are you? Raise your right arm. Raise your left arm. Walk backwards, forwards.

Moreover, they were familiar with the terms relating to their work (shovel, wheelbarrow, soil, etc.) and were able to answer in simple sentences which, though frequently containing errors, were always intelligible.

*Reading:* 25 workers were able to read the last two reading-cards easily.

*Writing:* 30 workers were able to copy script correctly.

*Spelling:* 20 workers were able to write correctly the following words which were dictated to them: *canion, pelle, brouette, à droite, à gauche*, etc.

It was noted that all the workers were very keen to learn, and that in studying the various cards they made a genuine effort. They even asked to be allowed to complete their education by attending evening courses after their work.

## YWCA PIONEER COURSE IN TROPICAL RURAL WELFARE FOR WOMEN

The YWCA of Great Britain, which has been responsible for so much pioneer social welfare work in England and overseas, planned a new course on tropical rural welfare which opened on 13 January 1952. The course was given at the YWCA College, Selly Oak, Birmingham.

The course was planned and launched in consultation with the Colonial Office, the Department of Education in Tropical Areas of the University of London Institute of Education, the various missionary societies and the National Federation of Women's Institutes. The course concentrated chiefly on the principles and practice of community education as adapted for tropical needs in undeveloped rural areas and included classes on the use of the campaign-project method, visual aids, drama and literature. There was also special elementary instruction on cookery and nutrition, child care, handwork, food cultivation and co-operative principles. The whole course lasted for 11 weeks and, in addition, an optional three weeks' observation tour in Scotland or Northern Ireland was arranged, when smallholder farms, women's institutes, young farmers' clubs, co-operative groups and rural clubs were visited.

## EGYPT: RAS EL BAR YOUTH CAMP

(Notes contributed by Mohamed el-Shibiny.) On 12 July 1952 135 teen-age boys gathered in a camp established in Ras El Bar for 15 days of camp life. Ras El Bar is a peninsula where the River Nile and the Mediterranean Sea meet. In this healthy atmosphere three camp sessions of 15 days each were conducted, giving more than 400 boys the opportunity of participating in typical camp life during the summer.

The group represented more than 20 different secondary schools in Egypt. There were boys from Aswan, Luxor, Menia and Assuit in Upper Egypt. Others came from Cairo, Tanta, Mansoura, Shebin-El-Kom and Alexandria in Lower Egypt. Other than these groups there were boys from various Egyptian rural areas representing about one-third of the camp members.

A significant sociological factor was remarked. Boys from Upper Egypt have, to a certain extent, a somewhat different cultural background from their fellows from Lower Egypt, and boys from villages have different social conceptions and cultural patterns from



those from cities in both Lower and Upper Egypt. Such differences in cultural and social patterns have to be considered in planning camp activities.

There was a cultural purpose in accepting members from all Egyptian secondary schools. This was to provide situations which would allow each boy to develop an understanding of the customs, habits, attitudes and ways of life of those from another part of Egypt. A boy, for instance, who lived all his life in the village would give to those from Alexandria, who had never lived in or seen a rural area, real information and first-hand experience of village life: its economic situation, health problems, agricultural products, educational activities and its social life. The same is true of other boys from different cities and towns.

There is an important psychological factor involved in such camp living. Social as well as cultural inter-action among the campers takes place as a natural product of association with each other.

### *Aims and Objectives*

In establishing the camp, a general philosophy was formulated so as to make the camp life as meaningful and successful as possible.

This philosophy was based on a series of studies of the cultural, social, educational, psychological and health needs of Egyptian boys aged between 13 and 20.

Considering all these needs, the following six main objectives were formulated as a guide to camp living: to develop a sense of leadership among the boys; to provide situations conducive to broadening cultural outlook and promoting social experiences; to provide situations to enable the campers to absorb moral disciplines and educational values necessary for the preparation of a good citizen; to guide the campers to join in group discussions, forums and lectures organized in the camp; to train the campers to participate functionally and co-operatively in the various camp activities; to develop skills in organizing and participating in camp recreational activities so as to become leaders in these activities in their schools.

### *The Daily Programme*

In order to achieve these aims and objectives their inherent value must be understood by the boys. This could never be achieved unless free discussions are held with the boys in order to clarify any point which may appear obscure. To impose objectives on the boys would mean

defeating the main principles involved in camp life, namely, understanding, co-operation, inter-action and participation.

The camp instructors had a whole-hearted interest in making the camp a democratic society in which mutual understanding and free expression are a reality. In the opening meeting of the camp the instructors explained the aims and objectives of the camp and how these could be successfully attained. The boys, meanwhile, discussed the relative importance of the various objectives, and after two hours of discussion certain elements were modified in accordance with the new points of view presented by the boys. They felt thus that they had had an opportunity to participate in formulating the camp goals, in other words, they really sensed that democracy in the camp had been granted and had become a way of life.

At the second meeting the campers began to organize, under the instructors' guidance, the daily camp programme. Three essential factors were considered:

1. The daily programme should provide a certain amount of time for educational studies and for field trips to places of geographical, historical and cultural significance.
2. The camp programme should include a definite time to be devoted to recreational and sport activities.
3. The programme should set aside a certain period for participation in co-operative activities in and out of camp.

### *Camp Activities*

In planning the camp activities four aspects were considered: educational, social, artistic and recreational, with an instructor for each. The educational instructor was responsible for giving talks, organizing group discussions, accompanying boys on field trips and the like. The social instructor supervised the boys in connexion with their social and psychological problems. Primarily, his function was to analyse the reasons for any abnormal and sub-normal behaviour and guide the boys in overcoming their difficulties. He also discussed with the group such general subjects as how to live a healthy life, how to develop moral standards, how to adjust oneself intelligently to community life. The purpose of the instructor of arts was to develop the boys' aesthetic qualities and direct them towards creative expression in painting and sculpting. He taught the campers to use materials found in the environment—shells and clay for making ashtrays, bookstands, vases, jars, etc. The instructor of recreation and sports organized

and supervised the boys in swimming, etc. At the same time he helped them plan and participate in the various recreational activities of the camp.

### *The Development of Leadership*

A basic factor in developing the sense of leadership is to let the boys feel responsible for the success and failure of the camp life. Every member has a significant role to play in camp activities. Camp life was, in fact, a process in which each member co-operated, interacted and contributed to the educational, cultural and recreational programme. To put the idea into practice, every six students living in a tent selected a leader among themselves to be responsible for leading them in camp activities. Each tent made its beds, shared in preparing meals, participated in cleaning the camp ground, provided items in recreational activities, guarded the camp.

Such a real participation in all camp activities provided opportunities for the boys' sense of leadership to develop. Each camper had an inner feeling that the success or failure of camp life depended upon his honesty and sincerity, as well as his whole-hearted co-operation with his fellows.

### *Camp Newspaper*

It is evident that this process of developing leadership requires self-expression and spontaneity. A group of boys felt, one day, after living four days in the camp, that they needed to have their own newspaper in which they could express their political ideas as well as discuss camp educational, social and recreational activities. They borrowed a mimeograph machine from a school in Domietta and bought stencils. A group of them organized a board of editors to prepare the copy, and four other boys devoted two hours every day to printing it.

At first, the boys met some obstacle in organizing and printing the newspaper. However, their constant interest in having a daily newspaper issued in the camp overcame the problems. The daily camp newspaper began to play an integral role in camp life and became an essential element in developing self-expression.

### WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EXTRA-MURAL STUDIES, GOLD COAST, 1952

The report of the Department of the University College of the Gold Coast for the academic year 1951-52 shows an increase over the pre-

vious year of 32 in the number of classes held, making a total of 108. Lack of staff prevented the total from being much higher. Indeed the department finds it difficult to meet all the demands for adult education organized both by the student body and the People's Educational Association. It is also difficult for it to follow its policy of regarding systematic tutorial work as the core of true adult education.

An improvement in the quality of class-work has been noted, however, as well as a growing need for a full-scale residential college, in addition to the one being completed at Tsito.

An interesting experiment has been carried out in the Ashanti region where courses, conferences and one-day schools on local government, village affairs, co-operatives etc., have been conducted in the vernacular, Twi. Work with women's groups, trade unions and residential schools has also been undertaken.

An account is given of the development of the People's Educational Association which not only plays a part in organizing classes for the Department, but itself conducts other less systematic forms of study and work in literacy and village development, as well as publishing its own magazine, *The Outlook*. During the year a national PEA Week was held which began with a broadcast by the national president, the full programmes being carried out by the branches of the association. 'Health' and 'children's' days were also organized and new literacy campaigns launched. The Third Annual Conference of PEA was held at Tamale from 30 May to 3 June 1952.

The department has taken over responsibility for the series '*West African Affairs*', which up to the end of 1951 was published by the Bureau of Current Affairs in London, and six new pamphlets are in production, including *Agricultural Problems* by A. Smith, *African Art* by Ben Enwonwu and *Community Development Planning* by E. R. Chadwick.

### SOUTH PACIFIC COMMISSION: PRACTICAL PLANS FOR NATIVE WELFARE IN 1953

Plans to guide the South Pacific Commission in 1953 in continuing its task of promoting the welfare of Pacific Islands peoples were made final at the Fourth Meeting of the Research Council held at the commission headquarters, Noumea, last June. The council, which meets annually, is the commission's expert advisory body.

The meeting was attended by 17 specialists in the commission's three fields of activity: economic development, health and social





*mioturiki—school milk scheme—children queuing for Mid-morning milk.*

development. Most were technical officers of territorial administrations, with wide practical experience of Pacific problems.

The council reviewed the progress made in the year's work programme, and formulated recommendations for 1953. Special consideration was given to the extension of commission projects to include Guam and the Trust Territory of Micronesia, which are now included in the commission's area.

#### *To Assist Native Health*

In the field of health, the council reviewed the work of the Commission's nutritionist, who has been carrying out field investigations on child and adult nutrition in Papua, New Guinea and New Hebrides. It was considered possible that the Lava process for extracting

oil and protein from fresh coconut meat, as yet untried in the region, might make available a protein suitable for infant food, now so lacking in the area.

The work of the commission's tuberculosis teams, which carried out field investigations during 1950 and 1951 in Fiji, Samoa, Cook Islands, French Oceania and New Caledonia, was studied.

Reviewing the year's work on filariasis and elephantiasis, the council considered that an important contribution to world knowledge of these diseases had been made.

The council studied the report on leprosy in Nauru, prepared by Dr. C. J. Austin (Medical Superintendent of Makogai Leprosy Hospital in Fiji) who also recently conducted a survey in the Solomons. Another leprologist, Dr. Norman Sloan, of New York, is making a survey in Netherlands New Guinea.

#### *Education and Housing*

In social development, the progress made in 21 defined projects was examined. Projects already completed include those relating to anthropological and linguistic surveys of the Pacific, visual education, and a survey of the vocational training needs of the islands peoples. Nearing completion are those dealing with native housing in the South Pacific, community development on the island of Moturiki, Fiji, and a model central vocational training institution for the region.

The interest shown by native peoples in the co-operative movement is regarded as evidence of their desire to play a greater part in their economic and social advancement, and in the use of their resources. As the commission has sought means by which it can advise territorial administrations on the development of the movement, the council made a specific proposal for consideration by the commission.

The council dealt with the current activities of the South Pacific Literature Bureau, set up earlier this year by the commission to promote distribution of simple literature for island peoples.

## UNESCO NEWS

### **PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND LIBRARY SCHOOLS**

In compliance with decisions taken by the Seventh Session of the General Conference, Unesco will establish a system of associated

projects by which selected public libraries and library schools are linked up, through Unesco, with each other and with related projects organized by Unesco.

This scheme is intended primarily to help

library projects doing pioneer work for fundamental or adult education in countries where public libraries and the professional training of public librarians are in considerable need of development and where the prestige of association with Unesco would assist them in obtaining increased local or national support. However, since such projects could clearly benefit from an exchange of experience with public libraries and library schools engaged in similar work and dealing with similar problems in comparatively underdeveloped regions of countries where the library movement in general is well advanced, participation in the scheme is open to the latter as well.

Unesco is especially interested in such library projects for the following reasons:

1. To obtain regular information about their work for distribution to librarians, government officials and educators who are facing similar problems in other parts of the world.
2. To aid their development by giving them, on request, such technical information and advice as are available at Unesco or can be obtained by Unesco.

The scheme is described in detail in document Unesco/CUA/49, copies of which are available on request from the Libraries Division, Unesco, 19 avenue Kléber, Paris-16<sup>e</sup>, France.

Unesco will organize a seminar at the University College, Ibadan, Nigeria, 27 July-21 August 1953, to encourage public library development in Africa. The meeting will be open to educators as well as librarians. The following Member States have been invited to participate: Belgium, Egypt, France, Italy, Liberia, Libya, Spain, Union of South Africa, United Kingdom. Ethiopia and Portugal have been invited to send observers. Unesco will provide board and room for participants. Governments taking part in the meeting are expected to pay for travel of participants and board and room and travel of observers.

Subjects provisionally suggested for discussion by the seminar working groups are:

1. Organizing public library services on a regional or national scale.
2. Provision, selection and use of publications and audio-visual materials in African public libraries.
3. Professional training for public library service.

Working papers will be prepared and mailed to seminar members before the meeting.

The director of the seminar will be Miss Yvonne Oddon, Librarian of the Musée de l'Homme, Paris. Miss Oddon's wide international experience has included a year as

Unesco consultant at the fundamental education project in the Marbial Valley, Haiti, and work as a group leader at the Unesco Seminar on the Role of Libraries in Adult Education, held in Malmö, Sweden, in 1950. At that Seminar, Miss Oddon's group studied the problem of establishing public library services in underdeveloped regions.

Educators and librarians interested in attending the seminar should immediately get in touch with their Unesco National Commission or Co-operating Body, Ministry or Department of Education.

The 'Road to Books', a film on the public libraries of Sweden, has been produced by Svensk Filmindustri as a contribution to the work of Unesco. It is available in English, French, Spanish and Swedish versions in 16 mm. and 35 mm. The running time is about 22 minutes. Prints may be borrowed from Unesco National Commissions or Ministries of Education. The film is one of the results of the Unesco Seminar on 'The Role of Libraries in Adult Education', held in Malmö, Sweden, in 1950.

The Delhi Public Library, initially a joint pilot project of Unesco and the Government of India, has received a special grant from Unesco for the preparation of material for neo-literates. Manuscripts are required on the following subjects: economic geography of India; physical geography of India; human geography of India; rural and urban community centres such as Faridabad, Nilokheri and Etawah, etc.; power development projects; education in India; children in India; United Nations; Unesco; WHO; etc. Approved manuscripts should preferably be in Hindi, though acceptable in English and Urdu.

#### *'Development of Public Libraries in Latin America—the São Paulo Conference'*

This volume, the fifth in the Unesco series of 'Public Library Manuals', contains a selection of the working papers and recommendations of the Unesco-Organization of American States Conference on the Development of Public Library Services in Latin America, held in São Paulo, Brazil, in October 1951, and attended by 119 representatives from 17 countries.

The experts who contributed to the book analyse the main problems to be solved in making public library services to popular education fully effective in this region. Included are chapters on the legal basis for public library development, provision of suitable reading material for adults with little formal



education, services for workers, work with children and young people, and the professional training of librarians for community service.

While the book refers to one region, it has a far wider relevance, since the problems it explores are common to many other parts of the world. Librarians, government officials and educators in all countries where public libraries are not yet fully developed will find it a stimulating and useful guide.

Now available in English, 196 pages, illustrated. (French and Spanish editions are in preparation.) \$1, 6/- or 300 French francs.

This book can be purchased in local currency through Unesco national distributors. If there is no distributor in your country, it can be obtained directly from: Unesco Sales Service, 19 avenue Kléber, Paris-16<sup>e</sup>.

#### FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

*Formation of National Committees.* Unesco continues to encourage the establishment of National Committees concerned with work in Fundamental Education. To date, we have word that some 23 have been formed. Guatemala, Greece, Yugoslavia, Norway and Ceylon are the most recent Member States to take this action.

*Associated Projects System.* Three new activities have recently been added to the Associated Projects list, bringing the total to 51, in 17 Member States. The new additions are: The Department of Education of the University of Malaya; the Pare Hills Scheme in Tanganyika; and the Agricultural Settlement Schools in the Philippines.

*Methods and Media in Fundamental Education.* From 17 to 29 November a meeting of experts on the use of vernacular languages in education (in areas where the second language is English) was held at Jos, Nigeria. There were 12 participants (eight from British Colonies, two from South Africa, one from Liberia, one from U.S.A.) and two observers (one French, one Italian). A report on this meeting will be published this year by Unesco together with some of the working papers prepared for the meeting.

A request from Nigeria for assistance in the codification of native languages, and the development of suitable scripts and orthographies, has been approved and a specialist is on the job. The assignment of two specialists to assist with a language-teaching experiment at the University of Malaya has also been approved.

A report on methods used in teaching children and adults to read and write, and on the suc-

cess which has attended their use, in various parts of the world, is now being prepared for Unesco by Dr. William S. Gray of the University of Chicago. In addition to carefully combing the text collections of the Unesco Education Clearing House, Dr. Gray has corresponded directly with many experts in various countries, and has visited in person a number of European specialists, and centres in Latin America where experimental work has been done. A preliminary draft of the report will be duplicated and sent for comments to all correspondents, consultants, Member States and Unesco field specialists, together with samples of the materials reported to be most successful in use.

*Latin American Fundamental Education Centre.* Twenty months after their induction into CREFAL, the first Unesco Fundamental Education Training and Production Centre at Patzcuaro in Mexico, 46 students from nine Latin American States completed their courses and received diplomas as 'Specialists in Fundamental Education'. All have returned to their home countries, and reports have been received from seven of the countries that the graduates are already being employed in national projects in which their special skills will be utilized. The countries represented: Costa Rica, El Salvador, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras and Peru.

*Arab States Fundamental Education Centre.* The Arab States Fundamental Education Centre in Egypt accepted its first enrolment of students on 20 December 1952. For two weeks, an orientation programme on fundamental education was held in Cairo. Prominent Egyptian educationists and members of the Government were among the participants. On Tuesday, 6 January, staff and students moved to the new centre at Sirs-el-Layyan, Menouf, Egypt. Two weeks later Dr. John Taylor, Acting Director-General of Unesco, Premier General Mohammed Neguib, Minister of Education, el Kibbani and Minister of Social Affairs Abbas Ammar, gathered with several hundred prominent Egyptian representatives of the other Arab States, and of the UN Specialized Agencies, to officially dedicate the centre.

Dr. Abbas Ammar was appointed director of the centre early in July 1952, but was recalled by the Government of Egypt on December 8, and appointed Minister of Social Affairs. The centre is now operating under the direction of Dr. Abdul Hamid Kadhim, formerly Dean of the Higher Teachers' College, Baghdad, Iraq, Deputy Director. It is hoped that a new director may be designated shortly.



*Missions under Technical Assistance.* A specialist in audio-visual aids has been sent to Ceylon to study local needs and resources and to produce and test various kinds of aids. A similar specialist has been appointed to advise on audio-visual education at Taiwan Teachers' College, Formosa, and to assist in developing methods of instruction in classrooms and in the field. A library specialist has been sent to Baghdad, Iraq, to appraise facilities and methods at the library of the Higher Teachers' College and to plan the library services for Unesco-Government of Iraq projects in fundamental education, science teaching and research.

THE INTERNATIONAL CENTRE  
FOR WORKERS' EDUCATION

In 1952 Unesco made arrangements with the Branting Institute for the establishment at the Château de la Brévière of an International Centre for Workers' Education (see Vol. V, No. 1).

The General Conference of Unesco meeting in its Seventh Session in November 1952 decided that the centre should operate again both in 1953 and 1954. The necessary arrangements for 1953 have therefore been made and the centre will open at the Château de la Brévière on 30 May. It will continue until 29 August. During this time four separate summer schools of two weeks each will be organized by international federations or groups concerned with

workers' education. As in 1952, Unesco will give financial assistance to these schools, but this time the grants will be made from the funds of the Exchange of Persons programme which is concerned with providing an international educational experience for workers who would not ordinarily have such an opportunity. The conditions governing the grants will influence the choice of student and type of course, and though at the time of going to press details of the courses proposed were unknown, the international organizations had submitted outline programmes along the lines which it is Unesco's purpose to encourage and designed to utilize the centre to the full.

The programmes are as follows: 30 May-13 June (still to be filled as we go to press); 13 June-27 June, seminar arranged by the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions; 27 June-11 July, seminar arranged by International Federation of Workers' Educational Associations; 15 August-29 August, seminar arranged by the International Co-operative Alliance.

The Unesco seminars will be held between the third and fourth of these schools, i.e. from 11 July to 15 August. The period of five weeks will be taken up by two seminars of two weeks each and a meeting of experts lasting one week. The participants in the seminar will be nominated by the governments of Member States and the meeting of experts will be convened by Unesco in the usual way. The full programme is as follows:

<i>Date</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Directors of Studies</i>
11 July-25 July	Promotion of International Understanding through the Workers' Educational Movements	Mr. André Philip
25 July-8 Aug.	Methods of teaching the subjects of Citizenship in the Workers' Educational Movements	Prof. G. D. H. Cole
8 Aug.-15 Aug.	Unesco's Responsibility in the Field of Workers and Adult Education (meeting of experts).	

The seminars pursue the study of their subjects from the point reached by their 1952 predecessors. The meeting of experts will take up the recommendations of previous Unesco seminars

and examine these and other proposals, including their own, in an attempt to produce an outline programme for Unesco in the field of adult and workers' education.



#### CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

- Zacarias Rodríguez, Field Group Organizer for the Division of Community Education of the Department of Education, Puerto Rico.
- J. C. Pauvert, Director of the Bureau d'éducation de base de la Direction de l'instruction publique du Cameroun.
- A. J. Halls, who is an Australian, is one of the Technical Assistance Experts working as head of Mission for the development of educational broadcasting in Pakistan.
- Donald Burns is a specialist in textbook production on the staff of the Institute of Education, University of Leeds and served in Haiti for one year as an expert in the production of literacy and reading materials, under the T.A. Programme.
- Ralph H. Lewis, on the staff of the U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Museum Branch, Washington 25, D.C.
- Dr. Ismael Rodríguez Bou, Permanent Secretary, Superior Educational Council, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico.
- Dr. Mohamed el-Shibiny, Deputy Director, Rural Training College, Bay-el-Arab, Egypt; also serves part-time on the staff of the Training Division, Arab States Fundamental Education Centre, Sirs-el-Layyan.